The Outlook

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A Week of Devastation

Even by the end of last week it was impossible to form anything like a close estimate of the number of those who have perished in the terrible disasters caused by extraordinary and unprecedented storm conditions. That daily newspaper reports as late as Friday differed by hundreds and even by thousands in their estimate of the number of the dead was due not so much to a desire for sensationalism as to the absolute impossibility of summarizing statistically the horrors and calamities which were still existing and continuing. These disasters will have serious and long-continued consequences. Here only an outline of the causes and progress of the calamity is given. At as early a date as possible Mr. Arthur Ruhl, the well-known newspaper correspondent and magazine writer, who was despatched last week by The Outlook as its special commissioner to the flood-devastated region, will give a careful survey of the situation as he finds it. In a large sense the cause of disasters in States far removed and from different causes was ultimately the same; the Far West and the Middle West have experienced storms and rainfall which have no recorded equals in volume, suddenness, rapidity, and long continuance. The forecaster of the United States Weather Bureau declares that "there have been heavier rainstorms in restricted localities before, but such a heavy precipitation extending over three or four days in such a large area is unprecedented." Thus, in Indiana and Ohio there was a continuous downpour for two days and two nights, whereas there are very few records of such downpours lasting over twenty-four hours in one locality. This remarkable fall of rain accompanied immense storms which had resulted, so the Weather Bureau believes, from unusual conditions of heat and high humidity. There were three great cyclonic storms: the first originated in British Columbia on March 17, and swept southeasterly through Washington, Idaho, Wyoming, and Colorado, and then turned sharply to the northeast and passed over Kansas, Illinois, Michigan, and down the St. Lawrence Valley; the second originated in Utah on March 19, and swung down through New Mexico and Texas, then, also turning northeast, it followed in the track of the first; while the third originated in Nevada on March 22, swept eastward across Utah and Colorado, and then northeastward through Nebraska, Iowa, and Michigan.

The Tornadoes

Tornadoes are often developed locally by such great cyclonic storms. The first of the three storms was followed by tornadoes in Texas and Arkansas, which produced terrible destruction of forests and immense losses thereby, together with other injury; tornadoes following the third storm swept away a great part of the city of Omaha, in Nebraska, with serious loss of life; while the tremendous downfall of rain in the Middle West and the devastation in Ohio and Indiana were a result of the disturbed atmospheric conditions caused by all three storms in their cumulated effects. A tornado, it should be remembered, is comparatively a local storm—in the words of the Chief of the Weather Bureau, it is "a violent revolving local storm of small diameter and great intensity." Certain sections of the country, the Atlantic seacoast, for instance, are free from tornadoes; elsewhere there are "tornado belts" in which such local disturbances are made possible by physical and atmospheric conditions. A tornado is not often more than a few hundred yards in diameter, and it advances in a straight path not often exceeding a few miles in length; but while it lasts the wind frequently rushes around in its small circle at a speed of two hundred miles an hour. It was such a

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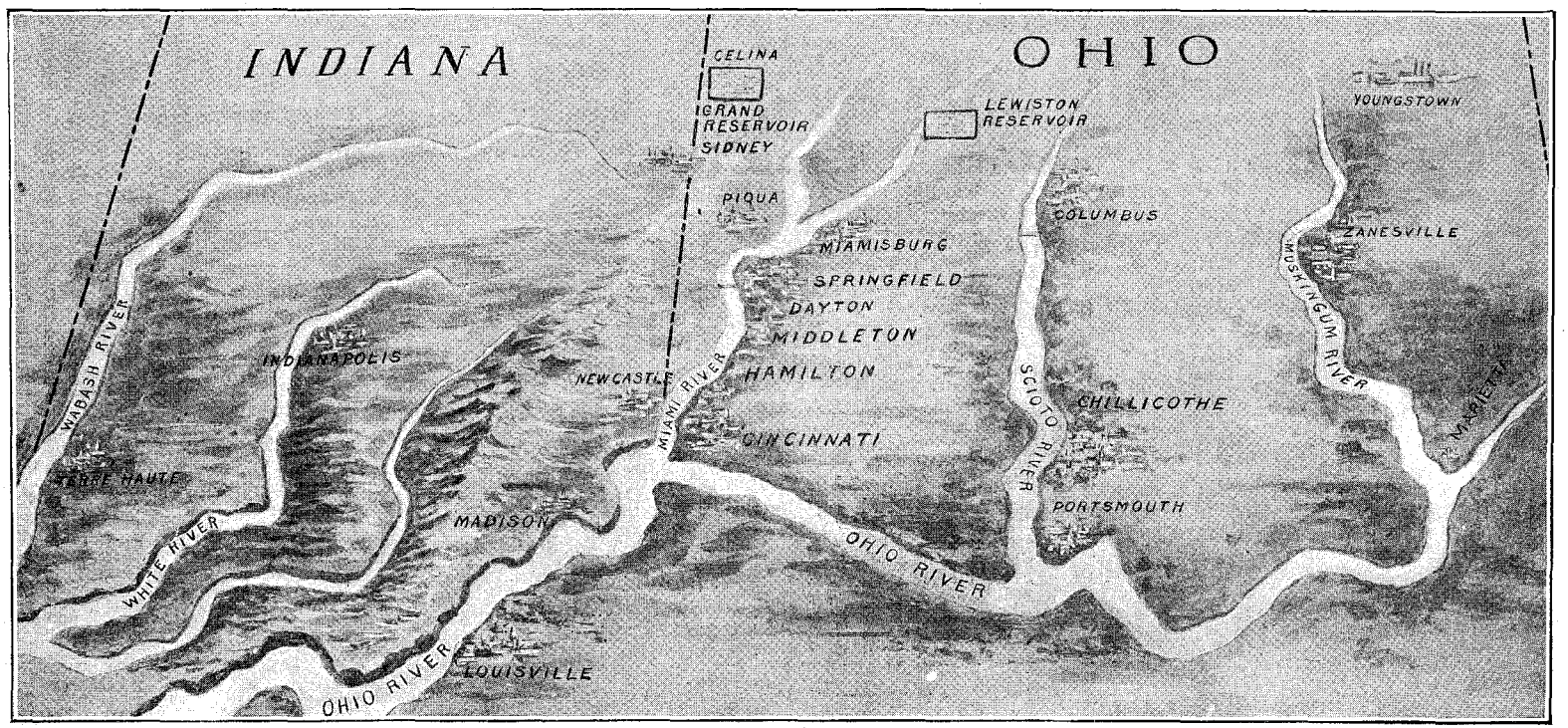

TOPOGRAPHICAL SKETCH OF THE OHIO VALLEY, SHOWING THE REGION OF THE FLOOD CATASTROPHES

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tornado that on Easter Sunday struck Omaha, often called the "Gate City" of Nebraska. Estimates made near the end of the week declare that between two and three hundred people were killed, perhaps a thousand injured, while some two hundred and fifty residences were destroyed, and a total property loss resulted that will reach into the millions. Following the tornado in Omaha came a heavy snowstorm which added intensity to the suffering. In a less degree, what happened in Omaha happened in Terre Haute in Indiana, and in several small places in Nebraska, Indiana, Iowa, and Missouri. The more extensive disaster in the Ohio valleys in a measure diverted public attention from the tornadoes, but that form of devastation, aided as it was by blizzards and local floods, was in itself a startling calamity. The people in Omaha and Terre Haute and the people of the States involved took up with immense energy the work of relief, and have required little assistance from outside sources.

The Floods in the Ohio Valley

The flood catastrophes in the Ohio Valley did not result from an increase of volume in the Ohio River itself, but from the sudden influx of immense volumes of water into the tributary system of rivers which lies between Lake Erie to the north and the Ohio River to the south. Thus, the Great Miami River enters the Ohio at Cincinnati, and in its southern course passes through Piqua, Dayton, Hamilton, and other towns; it is fed by many tributaries, and it is connected by a series of canals and great reservoirs with the Maumee River, which flows northeast to Toledo and Lake Erie. In the same way, but east of this Miami system, the Scioto River also flows south to the Ohio and enters it at Portsmouth, passing through Ohio's capital, Columbus, and having a connection by canal and by the Sandusky River with Lake Erie on the north. Still a third river, the Muskingum, flowing south into the Ohio at Marietta, likewise has its system of tributaries and its canal and river connection with Lake Erie at Cleveland, while Zanesville is one of the chief towns on its banks. Practically the same thing happened at Dayton and Piqua on the Miami, at Columbus and other towns on the Scioto, and at Zanesville and other places on the Muskingum. Incessant rainfall suddenly converted these rivers and canals and reservoirs into sources of raging torrents; some of the smaller reservoirs burst, the larger ones overflowed, canals broke their artificial banks and mingled with the rivers, the levees and walls intended to keep back any ordinary rise of the rivers from the towns proved of no avail, and the cities named and others of less importance were inundated for days. At Dayton many hundreds of people were cut off in houses and business buildings in which they had taken refuge, while other hundreds were drowned by the sudden incursion of the floods. Only towards Thursday night did the waters begin to recede and it then became possible to take the refugees off in boats. Attempts to compile lists of the dead were all but impossible. In Dayton and elsewhere widespread fires doubled the horrors of the situation. Railway bridges were washed away by the flood, and railway connection with other parts of the country was for a time completely cut off. Among the reports of Friday morning were such as those from Dayton that fifty thousand people in Dayton were homeless and the food supply limited, that it was feared that two or three hundred people had perished, that fifteen thousand residences were submerged, and $25,000,000 worth of property destroyed; from Zanesville, that six hundred buildings had been washed away; from Columbus, that the number of dead might be anywhere from five hundred to a thousand; from Hamilton, that the city was under martial law, and that fire was doing great damage; and from Piqua, that the loss of life was estimated at two hundred. Governor Cox, of Ohio, in a letter to the New York "Times" declared that half the large railway bridges in Ohio were down, and that the property loss in the State would exceed that of San Francisco after the earthquake. These are only specimen reports, so to speak, of the confused and sometimes contradictory messages which rapidly followed one another from the stricken region. By Saturday it became evident that the first reports as to loss of life were greatly exaggerated. Indiana suffered in much the same way and from the same causes as did Ohio; Peru reported at least one hundred dead; Marion, Brookville, Noblesville, and other towns were flooded, with loss of life and property. In northeastern New York there was serious loss by flood. The Ohio and Mississippi Rivers rose rapidly after they received the floods from their tributaries, dangerous high-water conditions followed, and apprehension was felt for

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the outcome. Everywhere in the afflicted districts it was apparent that the immediate destruction would be followed by a period of suffering such as would exceed even that which resulted from the San Francisco earthquake and fire; homeless people by tens of thousands, starving and terrified men, women, and children, must be fed, placed in shelter and comfort, and saved from threatening epidemics.

The Nation to the Rescue

As always in cases of widespread disaster and suffering, the American people responded instantly and generously to the need. The National authorities, the State authorities, the splendid Red Cross organization, the railways, and individuals by their subscriptions united to pour into the afflicted region supplies, tents, nurses, doctors, food, clothing, and money. President Wilson instantly offered his assistance and his personal presence if desirable, and directed the War Department to act promptly and without regard to red tape. Thereupon the Secretary of War, Mr. Garrison, and his Chief of Staff, Major-General Wood, proceeded at once to the scene of the disaster, realizing that personal action and sympathy are the highest form of help. The War Department issued orders to send tents, Government rations, troops where needed, army surgeons, sanitary supplies, including many tons of disinfectants, and whatever other aid could be utilized. Once more it has been shown that our army can be of immense practical service in time of peace. In acting with promptness, efficiency, and disregard of legal and other technicalities, Secretary Garrison has shown high qualities as an executive official. The Red Cross, through its National office in Washington and through its State branches, proved the completeness of its present organization and system by the promptness with which it put into operation its relief agencies and made its appeals to the country at large to contribute. Elsewhere in this issue will be found a graphic account of the way the Red Cross took up the work. While there have been many other commendable agencies set to work for collecting money, in our judgment our readers who wish to aid in the enormous work of relief, and in supplying the need which will continue for weeks and possibly for months to come, cannot act more wisely than by sending instantly their contributions to the National Red Cross, Washington, District of Columbia, or to Jacob H. Schiff, 52 Wall Street, treasurer of the New York State Red Cross, or to the State Red Cross organizations in their respective States. New York City alone in less than one day subscribed $100,000 in individual gifts. To quote from President Wilson's proclamation, called out by what he rightly calls a National calamity, "We should make this a common cause. The needs of those upon whom this sudden and overwhelming disaster has come should quicken every one capable of sympathy and compassion to give immediate aid to those who are laboring to rescue and relieve."

Commission Government for States

In the last few years more than two hundred towns and cities have adopted the commission form of government. The principle of the commission plan, as The Outlook's readers know, is to center authority and responsibility in what is virtually a board of directors for the city. In almost every instance the adoption of this plan has led to increased municipal efficiency. Now Governor George H. Hodges, of Kansas, is proposing that the plan which has worked so successfully in cities be adopted by the States. In a message sent to the Kansas Legislature on the eve of its adjournment, the Governor asserts that government by a two-chamber legislature is cumbersome and inefficient. He recommends that it be superseded in Kansas by a State Commission to be made up of eight or at most of sixteen members, which should act as a board of directors for the State. "In common with a large and growing number of thoughtful people," the Governor says in his message, "I am persuaded that the instrumentalities for legislation provided for in our State constitution have become antiquated and inefficient. Our system is fashioned after the English Parliament, with its two houses based upon the distinction between the nobility and the common people, each house representing the divers interests of these classes. No such reason exists in this State for a dual legislative system, and even in England, at the present time, the dual system has been practically abandoned and the upper house shorn of its importance; and I believe that we should now concern ourselves in devising a system for legislating that will give us more efficiency and quicker response to the demands of our economic and social conditions and to the will

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of the people." The Governor says he has been led to this conclusion by his experience of eight years as a member of the State Senate. Under the existing system he points out that there is a congestion of business accumulating for each legislative session; that the Legislature with its two large independent houses is a most inefficient organization for transacting business, and that the outcome is apt to be inaction on highly important measures, and hasty and ill-considered action on hundreds of minor bills. The same considerations that have led cities all over the country to turn to the commission form of government apply, in Governor Hodges's opinion, to the States. He suggests that the State commission should be made up of one or two members from each Congressional district; that the members be paid large enough salaries to enable them to devote all their time to the work; that they meet in frequent session, and that they be elected for terms of four or six years, subject to the recall. "A legislative assembly such as I have suggested," he says, "could give ample time to the consideration of every measure, not only in relation to its subject matter, but to the drafting of it in plain, concise, and easily understandable language. It would be ready at any time to deal with new conditions, and to provide relief in emergency cases; and, with time to inform itself about conditions and to study the needs of the people and of our State institutions, there seems to me to be no question but what it would be vastly more efficient than our present system as well as vastly more economical." The Governor did not ask the Legislature to act on his recommendation, but he urged the members to encourage its discussion with a view to submitting a constitutional amendment on the subject two years hence. Governor Hodges is a progressive Democrat of high standing and wide legislative experience. His recommendations are being generally discussed in the Kansas newspapers, and much friendliness to them has been shown. They ought to be discussed; but the arguments for commission government in cities do not necessarily apply to States.

Milwaukee's Newsboys' Republic

A Newsboys' Republic, recently formed in Milwaukee, promises to be a distinct success as an experiment in self-government. This new product of the "republic" idea was organized last November under the auspices of the State Industrial Commission, in order that the "newsies" might themselves enforce a drastic Street Trades Law. With a constitution based on that of the United States, they set about the election of officers and representatives from the six "States." Twenty-four political meetings were held in the various social centers, and the young voters were addressed by the candidates and prominent newspaper men, to say nothing of the Governor. Hundreds of party flyers added to the excitement of a campaign that resulted in the defeat of the People's party by the Independent, whose party platform included athletic contests, social center clubs, a newsboys' band and a newsboys' holiday, similar to Labor Day. This republic within a republic furnishes a splendid opportunity for the training of future citizens. Its officers have real legal power, for only those offenders who are judged guilty by the Newsboy Court are prosecuted by the Industrial Commission for violations of the Street Trades Law. The 124 Congressmen are policemen, each possessing a star which gives him authority to arrest the lawless of his district. Tony of the Italian district, and Isidore of the Russian Jews, are far better able to look after their fellow "newsies" than the adult policeman of American or Irish birth. Self-interest and pride in office-holding are the forces relied upon by Mr. P. O. Powell, Street Trades Commissioner, to make these figurative bluecoats efficient. Certainly they will not permit a violation of the act which allows a competitor to sell papers out of hours, off his beat, or before he is of legal age. Congress meets at least once in three months and all officers, except the three non-partisan judges, serve without pay. At present the Republic consists only of those lads who are working under permits from the Street Trades Commissioner. That takes in practically all of the newsboys of Milwaukee, for all under sixteen are forced to obtain a permit before engaging in business, and all over sixteen are required to do so by the circulation managers of the papers, who find the supervision of the Street Trades Commissioner most useful in helping to maintain an organized distribution. The Republic is too young to have proved its value, but it bids fair to make for law and order among the boys who have always constituted one of the worst problems of the social worker; the class which furnishes by far the largest percentage

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of inmates to our penal and reformatory institutions. By substituting good interests for bad, and group interests for personal, it cannot fail to be a splendid instrument for the making of future citizens of the United States. When one considers the cosmopolitan character of Milwaukee's population, this little democracy, with its American Chief Justice, its German President, and its Russian-Jew Vice-President, becomes an important agent for the assimilation of our second and third generations of foreigners.

College Men and Apple Trees

Many people are prejudiced against a college education. One of their reasons is that the college is an academic institution, too far removed from present-day social and economic progress. This, however, is not true of all colleges. Perhaps it is not true of most colleges. In some of them, certainly, there has been active and notable work to improve social and economic conditions in the communities in which those colleges are located. Take such an organization as the Williams College Good Government Club, for instance. It has about two hundred members. During a recent month, for example, the Club assisted the people of the city of North Adams, five miles away, in investigating social conditions, and especially in arousing interest in the Child Welfare Exhibit there. The Club took full charge of the investigations of factories, theaters, and schools; indeed, the college men visited all the factories in their section and observed the conditions under which men and women, but especially children, were working. Concerning the moving picture performances, they reported concerning the character of the films, the vaudeville, and the advertising, but especially concerning the number of children attending and the percentage unaccompanied by an older person. An equally noteworthy endeavor has been that of the Club's Committee on Apple Culture. One or two residents in the vicinity, finding the region particularly well suited for apple-raising, had applied the most modern scientific methods to this branch of agriculture. What they had done others could do, even if on a small scale. How could scientific knowledge be brought to the fruiterers and farmers? To this end the Committee on Apple Culture approached Professor Sears, the State Pomologist, and on his advice started a survey covering in detail every orchard in the vicinity of Williamstown. Instead of being bigoted and stiff-necked, the farmers from the very start showed interest in this work. The Committee sent them invitations to an "Orchard Day." About a hundred came. Professors Sears and Rees, of the Massachusetts Agricultural College, and one of the Williams professors, talked on various subjects connected with apple culture, and after the meeting answered the many questions put to them. The Committee is now arranging all the data obtained in its survey as a report to be distributed among the local farmers. All this is good for the community; but it is also a part of the college man's education. Indeed, it is thus that the college boy becomes the college man. And this kind of college man, when he goes back to his home community, will make a useful citizen.

Adrianople in the Balkan War

Adrianople has fallen. It was more important to the Turks than any other place except Constantinople. In their practice maneuvers before the war it was easy to see that the Turks recognized this, and at the recent London conference the Turks' spirited refusal to abandon the place alone prevented the conclusion of peace terms. The war had scarcely begun when the Bulgarians invested Adrianople. They did not attempt to capture it by continuous assault. Instead they "bottled up" the garrison of about fifty thousand men, repelled its sorties, and occasionally indulged in bombardments. At the same time, with masterly strategy, they moved their main force around to the southeast of Adrianople, thus separating it from Constantinople, and fought the war's decisive battle at Lule Burgas, thus preventing the main Turkish army, coming from Constantinople, from relieving Adrianople. The Bulgarians also posted a strong covering force in the southwest, thus preventing the Turks from the Gallipoli Peninsula from advancing. This siege was maintained throughout five months and a half. Finally the capture of Adrianople was accomplished by a three days' assault. The bombardment began on Sunday of last week. The Turks replied with energy, but it was soon seen that they were saving their ammunition. By Monday night the Turks had retired from some of their forward works and forts. By Tuesday night some of the forts of the inner line of defense were taken

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after hard fighting, the Bulgarians having manned the captured trenches and used against the inner line of defense the Turkish guns taken at the first assault. The Turks fled to the last line of forts and to the city itself. Realizing that the end was near, Shukri Pasha, the Turkish commander, set fire to the largest buildings in the city and blew up the barracks and powder magazines. When, finally, the Bulgarians broke through, they found the streets of the outer city empty, the soldiers and terrified people having retreated to the central part. To its credit, the Bulgarian Government's first act, on learning of the capture, was to appropriate twenty thousand dollars to relieve the wants of the sick and starving civilians in Adrianople, regardless of their creed or nationality.

Adrianople in History

As was expected, the Adrianople garrison was also found in an exhausted state from disease, wounds, and the lack of food; only Shukri Pasha's indomitable will had induced them to keep on fighting. His gallant defense constitutes a notable event in history. The assault redounds to the credit not only of the Bulgarians but also of the Servians, for at least a quarter of the investing army, in its final form, was made up of Servians, who after their victories in Macedonia had come to strengthen the Bulgarians not only with men but with many siege guns. Thus, as the Bulgarian Prime Minister, addressing the Sobranje, the Bulgarian Parliament, declared:

> The Bulgarian soldiers, united with their Servian brethren, have traced in blood a glorious page in Balkan history and marked a memorable date in the history of the world. Adrianople, the second capital of Turkey and the most strongly fortified place in the Balkans, fell yesterday, and the legend that Bulgarian troops, although excellent in an open field, would be powerless before fortresses has been shattered.

Adrianople will now be associated with the Bulgarian nation, just as it has been with six other nations. A Thracian town of unknown antiquity, it was rebuilt by the Roman emperor Hadrian, who gave it his name. The Goths captured it in the fourth century, and the Huns in the sixth. Later the Byzantines took it. In 1361 Sultan Murad I took it from them, and made it the residence of the Turkish sovereigns until 1453, when Constantinople was captured. In the nineteenth century Russia twice occupied Adrianople—first in 1829, when Russia signed the Treaty of Adrianople, forcing Turkey to relinquish to her the northern Black Sea coast land and to recognize Greek independence; and in 1878, during the Russo-Turkish war which had begun the year before. In that war occurred the siege of Plevna, with which the siege of Adrianople is bound to be compared, as well as with such other sieges as those of Saragossa, Sebastopol, Vicksburg, Metz, and Port Arthur. The first two sieges were longer than that of Adrianople, and so was the siege of Port Arthur; the others were shorter. At both Plevna and Adrianople the Turks resisted the assaults of an enemy superior in strength. Oddly enough, at both places the forces engaged on each side appeared to be the same. But there is this vital difference between the two. Plevna's only defenses were hastily thrown out with tools plied by common soldiers, whereas Adrianople had the advantage of massive and intricate fortifications.

Lord Wolseley

Last week Field Marshal Viscount Wolseley passed away. He was nearly eighty years old. He was a good example of what is possible in "an empire on which the sun never sets." This is seen from the mere mention of the fields of his activities. He was an Irish lad. He started his military career in Burma. Then came an uninterrupted succession of fine achievements in the Crimean War, the Indian Mutiny, the China War, in Canada, in the Ashanti expedition in Nigeria, and in the Zulu War. In Egypt he defeated Arabi Pasha at Tel-el-Kebir, but failed to succor General Gordon at Khartum. Less than a quarter of a century was necessary to cover all these activities. A whole volume of British military history, it will at once be seen, is comprised by the above—indeed, a whole volume in the expansion of the British Empire. As regards military reform, however, it cannot be said that Lord Wolseley greatly distinguished himself. When he retired as Commander-in-Chief, the very next war showed how little flexible was the British army. This was the more surprising because the army had been led by men with world-wide careers, namely, by Viscount Wolseley and his successor as Commander-in-Chief, Earl Roberts. The Boer War was a rude awakening. Whatever basis for criticism there may have been in the failure of the

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Khartum expedition and in Wolseley's attempts at army reform, he will be remembered in history, we believe, for the brilliant list of successes from his first active service as Ensign to his service as Commander-in-Chief. Perhaps the most picturesque incident in his career was his independent action as Captain at the relief of Lucknow. So much for Wolseley's active service. But there is another side to his career; he was also a military critic, as his biographies of Napoleon and Marlborough, and his own autobiography, "The Story of a Soldier's Life," abundantly prove, while he wrote a very remarkable view of Robert E. Lee as that Confederate leader appeared to military men abroad. Thus, since the early fifties, the British army has had the example of a foremost soldier whose honors in many parts of the world were well won, and the British nation has gained additional prestige wherever he commanded, for he was in every sense a manly man.

The Barthou Cabinet

The resignation of the Briand Cabinet in France seemed a body blow to good government. But the accession of the Barthou Cabinet is doubtless as happy an outcome of an embarrassing situation as could be secured. Jean Louis Barthou, the new Prime Minister, was Minister of Justice in the late Cabinet. In preceding Cabinets he had been Minister of Public Works and of the Interior. He is fifty years old. He is called a moderate Radical, and the confidence felt in him is indicated by the vote of confidence given to the new Ministry in the Chamber of Deputies—225 ayes to 162 noes. The Chamber heartily cheered the new Prime Minister's initial declaration of policy. Of course he urged the adoption of the system of three years' service in the army, and added impressively, "The life of the country is at stake and no compromise is possible." He also urged the adoption of other military and naval measures. The Premier's policies include electoral and educational reform and an income tax. Of these the electoral reform—proportional representation—seems the most important. It caused the fall of the late Cabinet. Last summer the Chamber voted for proportional representation; this spring the Senate rejected it, but by a small majority. The issue has been before the country for nearly three years. It has received decisive and increasing popular support. Its defeat in the Senate was in itself an example of the mischievous effect of present electoral methods in France, for the Senators are chosen by an artificial plan of indirect voting.

Siberia and the Exile System

After having been included for many years in the list of forbidden books in the Russian index expurgatorius, George Kennan's "Siberia and the Exile System" has at last been exempted from the restrictions of the censorship, and a two-page advertisement of it has just appeared in the Russian review "Contemporary World" of St. Petersburg. With the exception of a few months when the censorship went to pieces in the revolutionary storm of 1905–6, the sale of the book has been prohibited in Russia since 1891. It is now safe again to notice it in the press, and in an article entitled "On the Eve of Amnesty," published in the "Reitch," of St. Petersburg, about two weeks ago, the well-known Russian author Prugavin refers to it as follows: "People who were old enough to read with understanding in the last decade of the nineteenth century will undoubtedly remember the profound impression made in Russia by George Kennan's famous book, 'Siberia and the Exile System.' And this impression was not confined wholly to Russia. It modified public opinion everywhere abroad. The picture of Russian exile and Russian prisons, drawn so fairly and dispassionately by the talented American journalist, excited a feeling of horror throughout the civilized world. No doubt whatever as to the accuracy of the picture was felt by any one, because the statements of the author were supported by original documentary evidence, with dates, names, and precise specifications as to person and place. The facts, therefore, spoke for themselves. Since that time a quarter of a century has passed, and it would now be extremely desirable to ascertain what changes, if any, have been made in Russia's penal system. To this matter we propose to give early attention." For writing "Siberia and the Exile System" Mr. Kennan was arrested in St. Petersburg and expelled from the Empire in July, 1901; but five years later, when the power of the Government was temporarily paralyzed by the revolutionary movement that culminated in the Freedom Manifesto, four different translations of the book appeared in Russia and

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one in Poland, and tens of thousands of copies of it went into the possession of the people. As soon as the Government had re-established its authority, the work was again withdrawn from public sale, and it is now openly advertised for the first time since 1906. It would seem to have been covered by the amnesty proclaimed on the three hundredth anniversary of the accession of the House of Romanoff. The Outlook is proud that much of Mr. Kennan's writing has appeared in its pages; his articles from Cuba during the war, from Martinique after the Pelée disaster, from Japan during the war with Russia, his stories of life in Russia, and much else, testify to his conscientiousness and accuracy as an observer, his unusual narrative and descriptive powers, and most of all to his mental poise and fair-mindedness.

The Boy Scouts of France

We hear so much about the Boy Scouts of America and England that the formation of somewhat similar squads in France has seemingly passed without proportionate recognition. The French name of the movement that corresponds to the organization of Boy Scouts of America is La Ligue d'Éducation Nationale. Its President is M. Louis Liard, the eminent authority on philosophy and ethics and Vice-Rector of the University of Paris. The League is both non-political and non-sectarian. Its membership comprises the youth of the country between fourteen and nineteen years of age. The members take a pledge never to speak ill of their country before strangers, and under any circumstances, when they have occasion to speak of French public life, "to discuss discreetly what is bad, to be silent about what is middling, and to extol what is good in French public life." The local groups are made up very much as they are in America and England, and the members have naturally come to be known as "éclaireurs," scouts. On joining his squad, each éclaireur receives a badge bearing the letters "R. F." Every one immediately concludes that these letters stand for "République Française;" and this is true. Primarily in the mind of every éclaireur they probably do stand for the initial letters of the French Republic. But they also have other significances. "R" means "réflechi, robuste, rapide"—well-considered, robust, quick; and "F" means "franc, fidèle, fier"—frank, faithful, spirited. It is not surprising, with these spurs to patriotism, that a general revival, not only of French alertness but of French pride of country, has been noticeable since this French Boy Scout movement began.

Athletics in Asia

The first Far Eastern Olympic Meet was lately held at Manila, in connection with the annual Philippine Carnival and Exposition. It was not so large by far as its great Western counterpart at Stockholm, or the other modern Olympiads at Athens, St. Louis, or London. Nor did it attract "several thousand" Oriental athletes, as reported by one enterprising New York newspaper. It did, however, succeed in bringing together in friendly rivalry several hundred competitors from Japan, China, the Philippines, Hongkong, and the Straits Settlements. The games lasted ten days, and included baseball, track and field sports, tennis, basketball, swimming, polo, cricket, and soccer football. In several of these sports there were interscholastic as well as open championships. Naturally the Filipinos furnished the largest number of entries, as the games were on their home soil; but Japan and China were represented by creditable teams, and Americans and Europeans resident in the East also took part. Initiative in arranging the meet was taken by a committee from the Philippines made up of Governor-General W. Cameron Forbes, a former Harvard football player and coach; William Tutherly, an American lawyer; and Elwood S. Brown, physical director of the Young Men's Christian Association. That the contests were interesting may be safely inferred from the experience of the past two years' Carnival games at Manila, which have paved the way for this year's more widely representative meet. Although China and Japan have not taken part before in an official way, last year a baseball team and a few individual athletes came from Japan, and some tennis-players from Hongkong and Singapore. The games last year afforded the first meeting of the Filipinos and Japanese in sport. To the surprise of both peoples, the Filipinos were victorious in both baseball and tennis, the only sports in which the two races met. Three firsts in the swimming events were captured by a Filipino who had been swimming champion of the University of Chicago. American entrants won many of the finals, but in nearly every

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case were closely pushed by Filipino or Japanese competitors. In future it is proposed to hold All-Eastern games at frequent intervals, under control of the newly formed Far Eastern Olympic Association, which is to include all Asiatic-Pacific countries except Russia. This great region has a population of nearly six hundred millions, or forty per cent of all the people of the world. Save in a dozen coast cities and a few inland college communities, this enormous territory and population has no athletic standards, organization, or activities. The plan to bring the races of the Orient—the yellow man, the brown man, and the omnipresent white man—together in friendly athletic rivalry through recurring Oriental Olympiads has not merely an athletic but also an ethical and international aspect.

The Work of the Physical Director

This holding at Manila of these championship games for the Far East, in the planning and conduct of which the moving spirit was a physical director of the Young Men's Christian Association, suggests how much the profession of the physical director has grown in scope and dignity. Thirty years ago a retired circus acrobat, or any one who could do a turn on the trapeze or a hand stand on the "horse," was considered good material for a physical director, and his duties were limited to dumb-bell drills and acrobatic "stunts." Now the successful physical director is a highly trained specialist, often a medical as well as college graduate, and his objective is the physical welfare of the men and boys of an entire community. How wide such a man's field of service is may be seen from some of the "extension" activities of the physical director referred to, Mr. Elwood S. Brown, of the Manila Young Men's Christian Association. On his arrival, three years ago, Mr. Brown found amateur sport in a disorganized and semi-professional state, but by the organization of a Philippines Amateur Athletic Federation, of which the Governor-General is President, he established amateur standards to which the various Filipino and American athletic clubs and the public school authorities unanimously agreed. Later he was chosen director of athletics for the annual Philippine Carnival, and now, after three years, has broadened this event into an athletic meeting for the whole of the Pacific East. Then, at the request of the Governor-General, the organization and conduct of sports and recreation for all Government employees during the hot season at Baguio, the summer capital, was undertaken. Another and still more important service was the devising of a suitable system of physical education for the 600,000 public school children of the islands, which has been published by the Department of Education as an official handbook. Similar work has now been begun for the constabulary service. The most recent development has been the introduction of the playground idea; the Government has been induced to install a combined school and community playground for the Filipino children of the most crowded section of Manila.

A Chance for Girls in Spain

The educational programme of the new Spanish Minister of Education is under criticism. Spain is not advanced in education. Yet we have but to go back a few centuries to find that from all Europe students flocked to the universities of Salamanca, Alcalá, and Valladolid. At one time at Alcalá twelve thousand students were enrolled. Circumscribed as are the lives of Spanish girls, if any of them really want higher education they would probably find less opposition in their own country from the university authorities than across the border in France. There would be, however, the opposition of Spanish public opinion. Indeed, to most Spanish girls the future means either an early marriage or an ultimate entrance into some convent. Fortunately, Spain now has an opportunity for the higher education of women, free from the disadvantages and dangers of the usual university. We refer to the International Institute for Girls at Madrid, the first and only non-sectarian school in Spain maintained for the sole purpose of the education of women. The Institute was founded by Mrs. Alice Gordon Gulick, wife of a Congregational missionary stationed at Santander in the north of Spain. A young girl there asked Mrs. Gulick to give lessons to her in reading and writing, offering to pay for them by sewing. Mrs. Gulick responded to the appeal. Ten years ago the school was removed to its present handsome quarters, Calle Fortuny 21, Madrid. The "Directora" is Miss Susan Huntington, whose nine years at the Normal School in the University of Porto Rico and her three years as a voluntary teacher at San Sebastian

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fit her for her task—the adaptation of American educational ideas to the Spanish temperament. The faculty is made up of instructors trained in American colleges, together with excellent native teachers. The leaders in the new educational movement in Spain, we are glad to learn, regard the International Institute as forming an integral part in their plan for training the women who are to shape Spain's future.

Australian Social Advance

Social progress in Australia is interestingly chronicled in a recent number of the "Mansfield House Magazine," published by the well-known London social settlement. While Australia is an extensive country, its population is still small—it has not reached five million; in England and Wales there is an average of 619 persons to the square mile, in Australia only 1.5, yet the population is remarkably homogeneous, and it has been easier for Australia to make social progress on that account; there is a very small foreign element. Of course the material prosperity of the country has aided its social advancement; the country's agricultural and mineral resources are reflected in the fact that nearly one in every three citizens is a savings bank depositor. Moreover, the climate helps to make the social life happier; there is no extreme cold in Australia, and the air is generally dry; if there is suffering among the poor in Australia, there is no rigorous weather to put a poignant edge upon it. The main thing to be noted, however, about Australia's social progress is the fact that the commonwealth is an absolute democracy. There is universal adult suffrage. Every man and woman of twenty-one and over has a vote. As to conditions of labor, a standard of adequate wages and short hours prevails; the eight-hour working day obtains almost universally, and a weekly half-holiday of all classes is assured by law—perhaps this has been brought about by the strength of the trades unions. As to industrial legislation, Australia is a leader of the world: there is a generous provision for the incapacitated and aged; women at the age of sixty and men at the age of sixty-five are provided with a weekly pension of $2.50. Concerning transportation, it may be noted that all the railways are owned and controlled by the State. But the question arises, Does all this material prosperity make for the people's larger intellectual, æsthetic, moral, and religious life? So far, Australia has not achieved any special distinction in the intellectual and æsthetic world. It is also said that Australian morality is no better than it is in countries with fewer social privileges, and that the Australians are not a peculiarly religious people. On the other hand, so far as intellectual and æsthetic culture is concerned, Australians declare that in no country is there a more genuine appreciation of the best; that Australians can at least feel that under their fairer conditions men have a better chance to "find their souls."

HAVE THE FLOODS A LESSON?

Horror, grief, and human sympathy are the first and natural emotions excited by the indescribable flood disaster in the valley of the Ohio River. The first thing to do in such a calamity is to shelter the homeless, feed the starving, nurse the sick, assuage the pain of the suffering, comfort the sorrowing, and bury the dead with propriety and respect. The whole country has risen to the emergency and is performing these duties with promptness and efficiency.

But when these immediate necessities are met, there is another and perhaps a greater duty to perform—the duty of considering whether such calamities are not largely preventable and of forming and carrying out the work of prevention. It is cowardly to say that such catastrophes, that such inconceivable human suffering, are due to "the act of God." The great act of God was to implant an intelligence in man which enables him, if that intelligence is rightly used, to regulate, control, and employ the forces of nature. In the words of the Psalmist, the Creator made man to have dominion over all the works of creation and put all things under his feet. The history of man during the Christian era proves that the Hebrew poet had a very practical conception of man's sovereignty over nature. By man's intelligence the great pestilential epidemics that were once believed to be the stern visitation of the wrath of God have been abolished; the lightning has been harnessed; great rivers, like the Nile, once regarded as terrible and relentless divinities bent upon the destruction of man, have been made the servants of his welfare. No one can consider the wonderful record which man

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has made in employing the irresistible forces of nature for his benefit without having the imagination fired by a vision of what he may yet do with his God-given intelligence to employ the powers of nature.

Power, heat, and light are three forms of energy indispensable to modern industrial and social life. Generally speaking, they may be said to be the products of three natural resources, namely, coal, oil, and water. We now chiefly depend upon coal and oil to provide us with these indispensable forms of energy. But the day can almost mathematically be calculated when coal and oil will be exhausted as human resources. Water, however, will exist as long as the universe exists; and evaporation and precipitation will give us rainfall, and rainfall will give us water power as long as the sun holds out to burn. Water power is therefore the one inexhaustible natural resource upon which we can depend for heat, light, and industrial energy.

Such floods as those which have stricken the Central West mean much more than the loss of property which has been swept away; they mean the loss of millions upon millions of dollars of unused and misdirected energy which could have been put to the service of man. Science has taught us that smallpox, cholera, and yellow fever are preventable. The man who runs to-day from these epidemics without applying preventable remedies is a coward; the man who accepts them as the inevitable manifestations of the malevolence of nature is an ignorant fatalist. We regard with pity or contempt the Arab of the desert who says that the pestilence is "the will of Allah," and makes no effort to display the will of a real man in fighting pestilence. Is it not pitiable, when scientists tell us that our forests may be conserved, and our rivers harnessed so that they will not merely cease to do us harm but will begin to do us inestimable good, that we should sit down repining at what we call the inscrutable convulsions of nature?

The great lesson of the floods which have just shocked and terrified the country is the lesson of Conservation. We believe that the final and permanent and beneficial result will be that the country will take up the question with the united spirit, the unflagging energy, the scientific intelligence which have made it able to penetrate the Rocky Mountains, to cultivate the arid deserts of the Southwest, and to conquer the jungles and pestilential climate of the Panama Canal Zone.

THE ENGLISHWOMEN'S GRIEVANCE

IS IT A JUST GRIEVANCE?

On another page Miss Alice Stone Blackwell characterizes as far from fair our statement[1] of the grievances which have sent the British militant suffragettes upon the war-path again. Miss Blackwell also gives a historical outline of the progress, or lack of progress, of the cause of woman suffrage in Parliament during the past forty-three years. It is this lack of progress which has aroused the indignation of the militant suffrage societies, indignation which, Miss Blackwell believes, is shared even by the vast majority of British suffragists who remain law-abiding and who deprecate violence.

Two distinct questions present themselves, and we shall consider them separately.

Is the indignation of the suffragists, law-abiding and militant, justified?

The Government, at the present session of Parliament, introduced a bill for the further reform of the franchise. In accordance with a promise made some time before by the Prime Minister, an opportunity was given for the introduction of an amendment extending the suffrage to women. Several amendments providing for woman suffrage in varying degrees were introduced. The Speaker thereupon declared that if any of the amendments were adopted he would be obliged to rule that the character of the bill was so changed as to make it practically a new measure. Under the rules of the House it would be necessary to withdraw a bill so altered in character and introduce it anew.

Mr. Asquith then declared that, for lack of time, the Government could not proceed with the franchise bill at that time, but would bring it in again at another session and would then give opportunity for the consideration of a private member's bill dealing with woman suffrage alone.

The Speaker of the House of Commons, unlike the Speaker of the House of Representatives, is purely a presiding officer. In the words of President Lowell, author of "The Government of England," "he is not a leader but an umpire." On assuming the Speakership he lays aside his party affiliations. On points of order his word is law. From his decision there is no appeal.

[1] In the issue of February 8.

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The suffragists might, if they chose, have been indignant at the Speaker's ruling. The Speaker no more than any other man is infallible in his judgment. But apparently the indignation of the suffragists was not aroused against the Speaker. His ruling was accepted, we believe, without general protest.

The indignation of the suffragists at the state of affairs brought about by the Speaker's ruling is directed, not at its author, but at the Government.

What could the Government have done that would have satisfied the advocates of woman suffrage? In our judgment, it could have done substantially nothing more than it did do without being false, not only to the convictions of many if not most of its members, but also to the party which it represents and which put it in power. In England, to use again the words of President Lowell, "The Cabinet legislates with the advice and consent of Parliament. . . . Its function is in large measure to sum up and formulate the desires of its supporters." It is the duty of the Government to carry through the legislation desired by its supporters. It is almost invariably concerned with a legislative programme on which the country has set the seal of its approval at a general election.

The members of the present Cabinet are hopelessly divided on the question of woman suffrage. The supporters of the present Government are not, as a whole, in favor of suffrage. The division on the suffrage question is not vertical between the parties but horizontal through the membership of the parties. Woman suffrage has never been an issue between the parties at a general election.

The Cabinet could not, under these circumstances, make it a Government measure. To do so many of its members would have been obliged to cast aside their convictions, while the Cabinet, as a whole, would have found it necessary to adopt as part of its programme a measure on which it had no mandate from the country, on which, indeed, its supporters were radically divided.

The Government could not allow these considerations to interfere with those great features of its legislative programme on which the country had given the Progressive coalition forces in Parliament a mandate. It could only show itself ready to make the issue a non-partisan one, to leave the question to the House of Commons itself, without any insistence upon party loyalty either for or against. To adopt even this course was unusual if not unprecedented. Nevertheless it was done, and, we believe, done in good faith. The Speaker's ruling put an insuperable obstacle in the way. But the ruling was a bolt from the blue. Apparently no one either in the Cabinet or out of it expected it. To impugn the good faith of Mr. Asquith and his associates because the Speaker made it impossible for the Prime Minister to carry out his promise in full measure is absolutely without warrant. In our judgment, the indignation of the friends of suffrage at this occurrence was unjustified.

Whether the ruling of the Speaker was justifiable or not is a fair question for debate. The general rule, that no amendment not germane to the principle of a bill shall be allowed without going through the process necessary for new legislation, is a sound one, and is too often disregarded in this country, where important matters sometimes are carried through as "riders" on the backs of other measures without due consideration. In this case the Speaker had to exercise his judgment. His decision might invite criticism; it does not justify indignation.

Now to turn to the second question. Are the methods by which the militants are expressing their indignation justifiable?

To this question there can be but one answer—an unequivocal negative. Miss Blackwell, in explaining if not defending the actions of the militants, declares that "they have had enormous provocation." She says: "Men under like provocation would have burned half England. They did burn Nottingham Castle and a large part of Bristol in 1832, when a bill widening the franchise for men was held up for a short time in Parliament. What would they have done if it had been held up for forty-three years?"

In considering this argument several things should be remembered. The movement for the reform of the franchise which was successful in 1832 had been held up not for forty-three years but for over a century. Sixty-two years before the passage of the Reform Bill Lord Chatham said, "Before the end of this century either the Parliament will reform itself from within, or be reformed with a vengeance from without." The flagrant abuses to which he referred were of long standing then. It was exactly forty years from the introduction of William Pitt's first bill to correct the flagrant abuses of the

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franchise to the passage of the Reform Bill in 1832.

The burning of Nottingham Castle and a large part of Bristol was not the protest of one part of the common people of England against the action of another part. It was a protest on the part of the people of England against the aristocracy which had blocked the reform upon which the English people had set its heart. The House of Commons had passed the Reform Bill; the House of Lords had thrown it out. A majority of the people of England were united in favor of reform. At a general election they had given a mandate to the House of Commons. The House of Commons had obeyed the mandate and enacted the Reform Bill. The House of Lords, representing a minority and a special class, had interposed its veto.

There is nothing to indicate that a majority of the English people want woman suffrage. No party is committed to it. No mandate for it has been given. The two cases are as wide apart as the poles.

Bristol was burned by a mob of men whose passions had been aroused by a contemptuous refusal to do the will of the people. They were not carrying out a policy, they were obeying an impulse. The actions of this mob were undoubtedly disgraceful; the springs of their actions were understandable, indeed forgivable.

A blow struck in the heat of anger may result in manslaughter; if a blow be struck with premeditation, the same result is called murder. Not only human law but human reason puts a wide gulf between the two kinds of killing.

The men of Bristol were hot with sudden anger. The militant suffragettes are cold with premeditation. They are carrying out a policy, not obeying an impulse. What they are carrying on is not warfare, not even guerrilla warfare, it is *sabotage*.

They have said to Englishmen: "We demand the suffrage. Until it is given us no man's property, no man's comfort, no man's peace, shall be safe in England. We shall destroy your letters, smash your windows, deface your golf courses, burn down your buildings, unless you give us the vote. And we shall do this, not in the sudden heat of anger, but in the cold deliberation of premeditation."

To compare this spirit with that of the patriots who spilled British tea into Boston Harbor, as one correspondent has done, is woefully to confuse distinctions.

The acts of the men of Boston and of the men of Bristol may well be compared to manslaughter. The acts of the militant suffragettes have the distinctive quality of murder, malice aforethought.

As we have said before in The Outlook, the question of woman suffrage is one which has two sides, either of which may be and is held by honest, intelligent men and women. The question of *sabotage*, of a cold-blooded policy of destruction of property and disturbance of the peace, can have but one side. Those who adopt it deliberately place themselves outside the law. They have no right to the sympathy or the support of reasonable men and women.

LETTERS TO UNKNOWN FRIENDS

There is one matter on which I have not seen an expression of your views. That is the element of fatalism which seems to pervade the Scriptures. For example, Christ speaks of the treason of Judas, in the seventeenth chapter of John, as the fulfillment of prophecy. This would make Judas's betrayal not his own free choice, but places him as a victim of evil forces, set in operation before his birth and over which he could exercise no control.

The question of the relation of law and free will is one of the most difficult questions in moral philosophy. We know of no book which throws more light on the discussion of this question than a little book by Professor George H. Palmer entitled "The Problem of Freedom." It is, however, a question not merely in Scriptural interpretation nor in theology, but in philosophy. It is evident from a study of life that we are all living under certain great general laws which operate not only in the material realm over inert substances which have no power of freedom, but also in the moral realm over men and women who have some power of freedom. There could be no scientific study of history, no philosophical theory of the evolution of the human race, if history and the human race were not subject to general laws. On the other hand, our whole moral life, government in society and in the family, our indignation at wrong-doing by others, our remorse and repentance for our own wrong-doing, all presuppose and are based upon our belief in the freedom of the individual. We are not puppets that move as the wire pulls us. We have freedom of choice, though freedom of choice within certain somewhat nar-

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rowly defined limits. From the phrase in John xvii. 12, "None of them is lost but the son of perdition; that the scripture might be fulfilled," we are not to understand that Judas was lured to destruction in order to fulfill prophecy. Said John Calvin, who held the doctrine of foreordination in a supreme degree: "It would be a most unfounded argument for any one to infer from this that the revolt of Judas ought to be ascribed to God rather than to himself, because the prediction laid him under the necessity."

I cannot understand how you can write so easily and confidently about God's fatherly care for the individual. The attitude of mind seems to be, "A few of us are well cared for, therefore the scheme of the universe is plain and easy to understand." I cannot take comfort in a religion that helps a few individuals and fails to meet the awful problems of human life and history that have to be faced here and now. To you God's care seems to be the simplest reality; to me it is one of the deepest of problems.

I have expressed myself very unfortunately if I have given to my readers the impression that I thought the scheme of the universe is plain and easy to understand. It is to me full of mystery. A finite mind cannot understand the Infinite. I as little assume to comprehend the ways of God in his dealing with the universe as a little child two years old could assume to understand the ways of his father, who was a great statesman, in dealing with the affairs of the nation. But I can know my Father and love my Father without understanding him. My faith in God's Fatherhood is not a scientific opinion based on an examination of the phenomena of the universe. It is a personal experience of love. I believe with Browning, "Thou, God, art love; I build my faith on that." I trust God as a little child trusts his mother. There is a great deal in the mother's administration of the household which the child cannot comprehend, but he trusts the mother, and he knows her as a personal companion and friend, though he does not understand the reasons for many of the things which she does. My faith in God is a faith, not a knowledge. But I think it is a reasonable faith; that is, it is a faith not founded on reason but on experience, but it is a faith which is not inconsistent with reason.

It seems to me that we of the ministry are almost wholly to blame for the slow way in which the kingdom grows at home. Have you noticed how usually preachers cite Mark xvi. 15, "Go ye all into the world, and preach the Gospel to all people," and the parallel passage in Matthew xxviii. 19–20, and seem to overlook the natural and certain effect? Every man in the pews feels he is under no obligation to do anything save give money, when he hears, "Go ye into all the world." Do you think that these passages and Matthew x. 8, "Heal the sick, cleanse the lepers, raise the dead, cast out devils: freely ye have received, freely give," were meant simply for the twelve, or for all of Christ's disciples in all time?

For all Christ's disciples in all time. The contexts in connection with these and similar passages indicate their significance. When, for example, Christ says in connection with the passage of Matthew, "Lo, I am with you always, to the end of the world," does he mean that he is only with the twelve, or only with the ministers, or does he mean that he is with the church universal? When he breathes on the disciples and says, "Receive ye the Holy Spirit; as the Father hath sent me into the world, so send I ye into the world," it is clear that he sends all into the world who are imbued with his spirit. In John x. 2, he makes this clear: "He that entereth in by the door is a shepherd of the sheep." Whoever enters into the Church of Christ becomes by that very entrance appointed to lead and to feed others. The difference between the minister and the layman is a difference of opportunity. The minister, having the ordinary secular cares and duties taken off from him by his congregation, can give himself wholly to a direct spiritual ministry, while the most of us must depend largely on our example, our life, and the subtle and indefinable influence of our character, for preaching of the Gospel, supplemented by such incidental opportunities as are afforded to us or can be secured by us. The Church of Christ should be a working organization, and the minister its organizer and leader, not merely its paid instrument.

What did Jesus mean when he said that greater works than his own would be done when he should have gone to the Father?

Jesus measured greatness of action not by its power to awaken wonder but by its power to confer benefit. From the time when in the wilderness he refused the suggestion that he spring from the pinnacle of the Temple and be upborne by angels in safety to the ground, that so he might win the wondering allegiance of his followers, he always refused to rest his claims and the confidence of his

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disciples upon his miracles. He always rested his claims upon his personal character and upon the benefits conferred by his service. If we accept Christ's measuring-rod, it is easy to see how greater works than his own have been done by his followers. A single hospital in New York ministers to more sick in a single year than Jesus Christ ministered to in his lifetime. A single flour mill in Minneapolis feeds by its product of a single day many more thousands than Christ fed by the Sea of Galilee. Phillips Brooks preached in his lifetime to many more thousands than Jesus Christ preached to. The work of the Church in the last nineteen centuries, measured by its benefits to the world, has been immeasurably greater than the work of Jesus of Nazareth during the three years of his public life. This is not saying that the Church has done more than Jesus Christ, for it is the faith of the Church that it is Jesus Christ in his Church that enables it to do its work. The Church believes in his personal presence, believes that its power to do comes from its leader, believes that, to use Paul's phrase, the Church is the Body of Christ, the organization in which he lives and through which he does his work. But this work which he has done through the Church is immeasurably greater than any work which he did personally in his lifetime.

The carpenter applies his square, the mason his plumb-bob, the mariner his compass, each to the problem in hand, and confidently relies on the result. Where is the touchstone that I can apply when I find myself in sincere doubt whether a certain article of faith is in accordance with truth or error?

There is no absolute criterion, no carpenter's square, no plumb-line, no compass, by which the result we have reached can be exactly and absolutely determined. Truth is infinite, man is finite, and we never reach a final conclusion. As our study of the stars has always revealed to us that there are stars which we have not yet studied, as our use of the microscope has always revealed to us that there is a more minute world which we have not been able to discover, so all our study of life reveals always something beyond still to be studied. Man is a perpetual explorer. The advantage of the study is in the development of the mind and the spirit rather than in the conclusion reached. A boy with an adding-machine may get an exact result more certainly than he can get by doing the sum in addition himself. But by doing the sum in addition himself he gets a capacity to think mathematically which the adding-machine will never confer upon him. There are, however, two tests of truth in the moral and spiritual realm which one may practically apply. The first is the teaching and character of Jesus Christ. If the conclusion that the student has reached accords with the teaching and character of Jesus Christ, he may accept it; if it does not accord with that teaching and spirit, he may reject it. If, for example, he believes that Jesus Christ is the supreme manifestation of God in human history, he may be sure that any theological conception of God which is not in accordance with the character and spirit of Jesus Christ is a false conception. The other test is the practical result of the doctrine which he questions. "The test of philosophy," says William James, "is, does it work well?" This is certainly true in the realm of morality and religion. Any theological theory which helps to make better men and better women is presumptively true. Any theological theory which stunts and dwarfs the growth of the human soul is certainly false. This is what Paul means when he says, "Prove all things; hold fast that which is good."

Mark xi. 23–24, "What things soever ye desire, when ye pray, believe that ye shall receive them, and ye shall have them," is a stumbling-block to one who prayed recently for the life of a friend until death came as a refusal to her prayer. In her bereavement she seems to have lost faith in Christianity and even in the life hereafter.

The incident illustrates the truth of Paul's statement, "The letter killeth." The Pharisaical notion of prayer was one which still exists in some quarters, that prayer is a duty due to God: so much prayer offered, so much credit given to the person praying. Jesus repudiated this notion of prayer, and taught his disciples that they should go to God with their requests as children go to a father. The very essence of the child's faith in his father is his belief that his father knows better than he does what is best for himself. This is the very essence of the Christian's faith in his God. To give us the right to demand of God that he should do our will, without giving us power to know as well as God knows what is best for us and for our fellows, would be not to grant a boon but to impose a calamity. It would be to give us omnipotence without omniscience, power without the knowledge how to use it.

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The passage to which our correspondent refers cannot be taken by itself, it must be interpreted in harmony with the general teaching of Jesus Christ, and specifically in harmony with his most fundamental teaching as illustrated by his own prayer in Gethsemane: "Nevertheless, not as I will, but as Thou wilt."

How much, if at all, does God control the material life of the individual? That all things are governed by law and will eventually work out for good to those that love God is undoubted. But does God interfere with and override all fixed laws of the world or the free actions of man so as to prevent injury coming to those who follow his guidance? What truth is there in such a statement as that of one who says he was providentially prevented from sailing in the Titanic, as he had intended? Why should God prevent one, and not another?

That God so interferes with natural laws or with the free action of man as to prevent suffering and injustice from coming upon the innocent and the virtuous is palpably untrue. It is impossible to reconcile any such notion as that with the crucifixion of Jesus Christ and the persecution of the early Christians. God evidently puts men in a world governed by natural law, and throws upon them the responsibility of their own lives. As in the George Junior Republic Mr. George throws on the boys and girls whom he has gathered out of the city the responsibility of governing themselves, and insists upon keeping his hands off, although that self-government may sometimes work palpable injustice to individuals, because the greatest good of the greatest number overbalances any evil to the individual, and the general development of all is the result which he is seeking, so apparently God throws upon his children in the larger child republic the responsibility of working out their own destiny, and not only finding out for themselves what courses of conduct are for the mutual welfare, but by that very experiment developing in themselves the power of a true manhood and womanhood. We see no ground, either in Scripture or in life, for the belief that God has certain favorites whom he specially protects against evil fortunes.

To-night at a special Lenten service the visiting minister said most decidedly that unless one were baptized there was no hope for him of the Kingdom of Heaven. Are we to believe that if a man does the best he can to live a good, true life, believing in and loving his God, not simply going to church on Sunday and considering his duty done for the week, but putting into practice every day the teachings he has learned—are we to believe that, because that man has not been baptized in his childhood, he is cut off forever from the Kingdom of God?

I do not think this doctrine is held by any who call themselves Protestants. There are a few in the Episcopal Church who apparently hold this view, but they would resent being called Protestants. There is nothing in the two historical creeds of the Episcopal Church—the Apostles' Creed and the Nicene Creed—to sustain this doctrine. Nor do I think there is anything to support it in the Thirty-nine Articles. In Article Twenty-seven, which treats of Baptism, it is declared to be a sign of regeneration, or new birth, whereby they that receive baptism rightfully are adopted into the Church; but this is very different from saying that only thereby can they be received into heaven.

What is more important, this doctrine is not consistent with Scripture. To quote only two texts, Isaiah declares: "Let the wicked forsake his way, and the unrighteous man his thoughts: and let him return to the Lord, and he will have mercy on him, and to our God, and he will abundantly pardon." Here the only conditions of pardon are repentance and return unto God. Those who accept the Bible as a final authority have no right to add an additional condition. Turning to the New Testament, Paul declares explicitly that God will give eternal life "to those who by patient continuance in well-doing seek for glory and honor and immortality." Here the condition, though differently expressed, is the same as in Isaiah. It is seeking the higher life by abandonment of doing evil and consistent endeavor to do well. Those who accept the Bible as a final authority have no right to add to the condition here indicated by Paul.

Nor is the doctrine that baptism is essential to salvation consistent with life. It is impossible to conceive that such men as John Woolman and John G. Whittier are not saved. They were both Quakers, and Quakers do not believe in water baptism.

Nor is this doctrine consistent with true reverence for God. I do not see how I could revere as just a God who should condemn a child to punishment because his parents failed to perform a ceremonial duty supposedly imposed upon them.

From every point of view, therefore, I reject totally the notion that baptism, or indeed any other ceremonial act, is essential to secure the forgiveness of the Father for our sins and

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his gift to us of eternal life. I think it not improbable that the preacher you refer to failed to make his meaning clear; that what he really meant was that baptism is essential to being enrolled in the Church of Christ, and that he used the Kingdom of Heaven and the Church of Christ as synonyms, as some ministers sometimes do. LYMAN ABBOTT.

DOLLARS AND DIPLOMACY

A POLL OF THE PRESS

THE appointment of the Ambassadorship to England was first offered by President Wilson to Mr. Richard Olney, Secretary of State in the second Cleveland Administration. Mr. Olney declined. Then the President offered it to Mr. Charles W. Eliot, late President of Harvard University. Mr. Eliot declined. The appointment to France was offered to Mr. William F. McCombs. Mr. McCombs declined. The appointment to Germany was offered to Dean Fine, of Princeton University. It is not known whether Dr. Fine will accept or decline. The appointment as Minister to China was offered to Dr. John R. Mott, the well-known Young Men's Christian Association worker. Mr. Mott is reported to have declined.

Ex-President Eliot's refusal to accept the appointment to the Court of St. James's recalls his similar refusal four years ago. At that time the President of the American Embassy Association said: "It is an open secret that his reason was the fact that he did not feel that his private income would enable him to support an establishment in London and to entertain upon a scale that has come to be associated with the London Embassy."

That "scale" is thus explained by the Sioux Falls, South Dakota, "Press," as it says: "The Government of the United States, based as it is upon simple ideals, should be represented in all essential matters simply and without ostentation. But there are peculiar demands upon an Ambassador that disturb this conviction, and it is perhaps more true of the British post than of any other." The "Press" continues:

> The National representatives of the United States must, in order to properly typify the liberality and good will of America, "when in Rome, do as the Romans do." All government and official functions in Great Britain are accompanied by much pomp and circumstance, and this means the expenditure of large sums of money. The compensation provided by the United States Government for its Ambassadors to the greater courts of Europe is wholly inadequate. It has been held that no man of moderate means can properly administer the office. The United States must retain its prestige by meeting foreign nations on their own ground in matters of official formality.

A certain liberal scale of living and social expenditure is a diplomatic necessity, says the Milwaukee "Sentinel." "There certainly is nothing particularly 'American' or dignified in it for a representative of this great and powerful Republic to cut a cheap and stingy figure abroad." As to the Government, the "Sentinel" declares: "It should see to it that he is under no such necessity if he is a poor man; or, if he be a rich man, his Government should not sponge on him by compelling him to use his private means to support a style of living commensurate with his official station."

The President's difficulty in filling ambassadorial posts with the kind of men he wants is being followed with keen interest by the English press. One of the foremost Liberal journals, the "Westminster Gazette," deplores President Eliot's declination of the London post, and hopes "that the United States will soon have the right man among us." It adds:

> Eliot's refusal deprives us of an opportunity to welcome one of the fine flowers of American university culture, but the offer of the Berlin Embassy to Professor Fine, of Princeton, is a further indication that America's Chief Magistrate desires to give his country's culture a full share in international affairs. By so doing Wilson is realizing in a most practical form in the reign of George V the high hopes entertained of his own university of Princeton when it was started under the auspices of the British Governor, Belcher, while George II was on the throne. "We are creeping along with our young college," wrote he from New Jersey to an English friend, "and I shall be studious night and day to bring this infant forward into youth and manhood, for not learning or knowledge ever hurt a king, state, or people, but riches and their concomitant, luxury."

The London "Truth" adds:

> London has become the American Mecca. Enormous numbers of wealthy Americans come

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here. Every American thinks he has the same right of walking into the American Embassy in London as of walking into the White House. . . . The reduction of expenses caused by the practical extinction during the last ten years of the custom of giving state balls, etc., at the embassies has been more than counterbalanced by the demands of the increasing number of American visitors.

President Wilson turns Mr. McCombs's declination of the Paris post to good account in calling attention to the fact that such men cannot accept embassies and legations, says the Washington "Herald," and adds:

An American Ambassador receives $17,500 a year. Out of this he must pay his house rent. A knowledge of rents in Washington suffices to indicate that a suitable embassy house cannot be obtained for less than $8,000 or $10,000 a year in any of the great European capitals. Put it at $10,000, say, for Paris. Then the proud official has $7,500 a year left with which to pay a retinue of servants, dress himself and his family, bring them all back to the United States every year so that they will not get out of touch with their country, entertain his colleagues and officials of the government to which he is accredited, as well as show to visiting Americans the hospitality they regard as their due.

The upshot of it all in Paris, Vienna, St. Petersburg, Rome, and Berlin is that the gentlemen serving as American Ambassadors spend from three to ten times their salary. If they tried to live on their pay, the American embassies would be located in back streets and their entertainments would be the laughing-stock of the diplomatic world.

To those who would apply the term "Jeffersonian simplicity" to the policy of making our representatives abroad depend for support upon their own financial resources, the Columbia, South Carolina, "State" replies that Jefferson was emphatically opposed to the Government not furnishing homes for its representatives in foreign capitals. His "simplicity" was in form, not in cheapness, says the "State." "He was constitutionally averse to show and display; he loved the forms of democracy, not those of royalty. But that does not mean that he despised the comforts and luxuries of the gentlemen of his time." The South Carolina paper continues:

Writing from Paris to John Jay and to Mr. Madison in 1788, Jefferson complained that Congress, in sending out Benjamin Franklin, had allowed all his expenses and a fixed sum for compensation, but had in his case made no provision for expenses, and he wished Congress to pay for his "outfit"—furniture, carriages and horses, etc.—which cost for the first year ten thousand dollars. And he charged that amount, "presuming there can be no question that an outfit is a reasonable charge." All other Governments, he found, furnished their Ministers' houses.

"So that, even with his simple tastes, and in times when a dollar went much farther than in this period of high costs," adds the "State," "Jefferson's first year's expenses in Paris were twenty-odd thousand dollars. It is no wonder that Mr. McCombs, without a fortune, did not care to accept the Paris post."

Mr. Mott says, as quoted by the Milwaukee "Sentinel," "frankly, that he cannot afford it. No doubt that consideration weighed heavily with all the others." Hence, as the situation now stands, concludes the New York "Press," "the first test for an American diplomat is his bank account. This isn't right, and it never can be right. The first test ought to be the education, the experience, and the natural aptitude of a man for such service, whether he is rich or poor."

President Wilson has two courses open to him, says the Boston "Journal:" one is to continue the practice of selecting millionaires; the other is to go back to original principles and pick out for the foreign posts the men he thinks ought to be there to represent him and his Government, whether or not they have private funds to piece out the salary that in many cases has not been sufficient to pay the rent of the American Ambassador. The Boston paper continues:

Perhaps if we had all our Ambassadors and principal Ministers out at the elbows, so to speak, in the foreign courts it would bestir Congress to make adequate provision for the expenses of our representatives abroad.

The thing that is not nice about this situation—the thing that is very unpleasant about it—is that this Government deliberately permits its servants in the foreign service to pay out of their own pockets a large part of the running expenses of the official establishments of the American Government in European capitals. And this private expenditure is usually added to large contributions paid into party campaign funds for the privilege of going abroad and spending still more in the name of the United States Government.

Such a thing as this, in the last analysis, can never be pleasant. It might be only a question of time until it would be a scandalous thing.

President Wilson admits the embarrassment to which he has been put in asking men to serve the country abroad at a "sacrifice of time, of means, and of opportunity at home." This, say many newspapers, of which the New York "Tribune" may be taken as an example, ought to start Congress to making a more liberal provision for those

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who accept the higher diplomatic posts. "It is beneath the dignity of a great and opulent Nation like the United States," that paper adds, "to try to get people to work for it at their own expense. It ought not to be asked, when Ambassadors and Ministers are appointed, 'Can they pay their own way?' As a matter of self-respect and fair dealing the Government should pay their way."

As President Wilson finds it difficult to get men of moderate income to go abroad "if merit and distinction alone are to be recognized in filling high diplomatic posts, the conditions of the service will have to be alleviated," asserts the "Tribune."

What would be the first alleviation? To increase the salaries? "It might not be advisable to increase materially the salaries of Ambassadors and Ministers," says the "Tribune," and thus continues:

Those salaries are high compared with the compensation of officials of the first rank at home. The trouble is that the Government compels diplomats to use their salaries to pay expenses which are in no way personal. If embassies and legations were to be built and maintained at public expense, and suitable entertainment funds, varying according to the cost of keeping up an embassy in the different capitals, were to be provided, the present salaries might serve.

Some time ago the Hon. Charlemagne Tower, then Ambassador at Berlin, in a letter to The Outlook, declared that the United States Government "is the most difficult Government in the world for an Ambassador to serve properly, because with $17,500 a year he is obliged to rent a house, meet his personal and domestic expenses, and entertain according to his official position in the country to which he is accredited. . . . Now, $17,500 a year is considered a good deal of money, but it depends upon what you want to do with it; if you undertake certain kinds of things, it will not go very far after all. . . . I am sorry to see the belief in America that none but rich men can accept the appointment to an embassy. The idea is a bad one for the country; it is totally un-American, and entirely wrong in principle. . . . Hence, . . . I think Congress is quite likely within the next few years to decide to buy houses for the important embassies in Europe; though I do not see any indication of an immediate increase of salaries."

But an increase in allowance for the expenses of Ambassadors is not the only thing to be provided for, we learn from the Nashville "Democrat." "The salaries of Ambassadors, instead of being uniform as they now are, should," this paper declares, "be rationally adjusted to the requirements of the stations."

The most commonly suggested method of relieving American Ambassadors from financial burdens which their country now requires them to bear would be to provide permanent embassy homes. Ex-President Taft declared some years ago in regard to this matter: "Could anything be more un-republican, more plutocratic, than the system of salaries and allowances that bars from the diplomatic corps every one save millionaires? The erection of a suitable embassy at every important station in the world would not only enable the poor man to assume a suitable position, but it would limit the rich man to the same kind of an establishment, and prevent that ostentation to which some of our representatives are tempted." Acting on this, in 1911 Congress authorized the Secretary of State to acquire buildings in foreign capitals, where it has none, for the use of the diplomatic and consular establishments. All the other great Powers provide homes for their Ambassadors and Ministers, and meet the cost of repairing and furnishing them, says the New York "Tribune." It adds:

The embassy is permanent, as it should be, and the cost of its maintenance is not put as a personal charge on the occupant. It is only proper for the country to bear the expense of observing the diplomatic and social customs of the various capitals to which envoys are sent. Definite standards are thus set, and it becomes a simple matter for diplomatic representatives to adjust themselves to them. The country should not shoulder on them personal responsibility for upholding American credit.

"I cannot believe," said Mr. Henry White, late Ambassador to France, as quoted by the New York "Evening Post," "that the party now in power will consent to perpetuate a condition of things which proclaims to the world that the United States alone, of all countries, insists on being represented by men of wealth, and debars from such posts as Ambassadors and Ministers those of moderate means or no means at all." "It is indeed," the "Post" comments, "only by shutting our eyes to facts that we have been able to persist in the policy we have pursued," and adds:

On the plea of democratic simplicity we have refused to make provision for the inevitable expenses of our Ambassadors and Ministers, and the result has been that we belie democracy by making wealth a necessary qualification for office, and fly in the face of simplicity by encour-

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aging our millionaire envoys in a competition to outshine each other in the prodigality of their social display. No appropriation that we are at all likely to make for houses or expenses will enable a man "of moderate means or no means at all" to carry on his establishment in London or Paris or Berlin as some of our wealthy representatives have done; and the only chance for a return to reasonable simplicity is through public provision for reasonable expenditure.

THE NEW ADMINISTRATION: AN IMPRESSION

BY ERNEST HAMLIN ABBOTT

STAFF CORRESPONDENCE FROM WASHINGTON

WHAT has happened in Washington since March 4? "There has been," said President Wilson in his inaugural, "a change of government." Yet the Government at Washington seems to go on much as before. Washington is a city of Government employees. There are no great factories to pollute the atmosphere of Washington with smoke. Clean linen, an impossibility in some American cities, is in Washington a realizable ideal. There are no big industrial concerns to assemble a multitude in search of work at whatever wages they can get. Such slums and sordid alleys as exist in Washington cannot be attributed to our industrial system except indirectly. There are no strikes and lockouts. There is no mill population. There are no signs of the wounded and the maimed of the industrial war. There are no mighty financial houses, no great money and stock markets. It is neither a financial nor an industrial capital. It is purely a political capital. All its business is dependent on the fact that here is the seat of the Federal Government. Its inhabitants are, with few exceptions, employees of the Government, officials of the Government, representatives of foreign governments, or people engaged in supplying their needs. And exactly in proportion as the activities of the Federal Government have expanded, so has the city of Washington expanded. It is only necessary to pass through street after street of comfortable houses and see in the new-made grounds evidence of the growth of the city to be impressed with the fact that the Federal Government is one of vast extent. It may be a Government of limited powers, but it certainly seems to be a Government of unlimited vitality and limitless scope. And all these people, from assistant secretaries and heads of bureaus to clerks and stenographers, are going about their work apparently undisturbed by the change of administration, though it means a change of party, and apparently unapprehensive as to the future.

"Yes," said the night superintendent of an office building, as he leaned against the side of the elevator, with his hand on the control lever, "it was very different years ago. Then, when there came a change of administration, the whole place was turned upside down. An army of new people was turned loose in the city, to take the places that were at the disposal of the party which had come into power. The civil service rules have changed all that. Now thousands upon thousands of these Government employees have bought their homes here. This is the place of their life-work. If the seven-year tenure bill were to pass"—this is a measure that would vacate all offices after a term of seven years—"these people would have to sell their houses; but now the regular work of the Government continues without disturbance."

After seeing Washington in this mood, one wonders whether the whole country does not overemphasize the importance of political changes and party policies, and whether it does not underestimate the substantial, continuous work that is done by Government employees day in and day out, week after week, year after year, without regard to changes in party. As one goes into the different department buildings, it is evident that the great proportion of the work that the Federal Government does is of this kind. Surveys have to be made. It does not matter which party makes them or what the political faith is of the engineers, the designers, the draftsmen, and the others who are engaged in the work. Studies of plant life,

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of the fertility of soil, of insects, and so on, are carried on for the benefit of the farmers of the country. Botany, geology, chemistry, entomology, are quite independent of political faith. It is evident that President Wilson and those who are associated closely with him in the Administration realize this fact and are going to protect from the spoilsmen this work of the Government that depends upon skill and experience and is not affected by political doctrines or theories. This, in itself, is the result of what might be called a political doctrine or theory. It is the doctrine or theory that in Government office public service is the prime consideration, and the merit of the public servant should be the chief factor in determining his tenure of office. Civil Service Reform has ceased to be the ideal of a few theorists. It has become the accomplished practice of the Government.

There are some difficulties created by this very accomplishment—the difficulties that are inevitably consequent upon a system that is inflexible. A Department Head may find a chief clerk, or a division chief, or some other even more subordinate official, a disturbing factor in the organization. There are no charges that can be brought against him except the charge of not fitting in with the kind of organization that the Department Head regards as most efficient. On the basis of general merit, routine fidelity, ordinary ability, there is no complaint that can be justly made against him. So he stays. The administrator who wishes to observe the spirit as well as the letter of the Civil Service Law—and that is the sort of man who is typical of the Administration at Washington—finds it hard to know what to do in such circumstances. There are cliques that have survived three Administrations, and will probably survive this one. Such ills as these, however, are of a minor sort. They can probably be gradually eliminated when the merit system has become so much of a habit that the people will be willing to trust administrative officers with larger discretion and power in the removal and the shifting of subordinates. President Wilson's Administration gives every promise of helping to make this habit of the merit system more deeply ingrained.

So much for what has not changed. In some respects, however, a very great change has occurred. The benches which replace the old desks and chairs in the Hall of the House of Representatives are not the only new things in Washington. Within three weeks a new spirit has shown itself in the old army of employees. It can best be described by President Wilson's own term "forward-looking." This does not mean that there were not forward-looking men in the former Administration. It is only necessary to recall what was done by the War Department under Mr. Stimson with regard to the control of water powers by the Federal Government to dispel the idea that there was no advancement in that Administration, no look to the future. On the whole, however, the spirit of that Administration was that of men who are resisting, not of those who are attacking. To preserve the bulwarks of liberty against the flood of innovation, to maintain Constitutional guarantees against new views of the Constitution, new ideas of human rights, was the task which seemed to be uppermost. Whatever inspiration that Administration had, seemed to come from the fathers. This Administration is plainly inspired by a hope for the future. The Cabinet and its chief are men who have their minds set upon what is going to happen.

In other words, this is a distinctively progressive Administration. It is so avowedly, it is so actually. There are some people who think that Mr. Wilson is going deliberately to work to capture the Progressive party. This idea, it may be said, comes from those of his opponents who can in no other way account for the spirit that actuates the Government at Washington to-day. There is a better explanation, and one that has the merit of simplicity. It is that Mr. Wilson and his associates are themselves forward-looking men. This has another merit besides that of simplicity—the merit of truth. It is impossible to meet any member of the Cabinet and talk with him five minutes without becoming impressed with the fact that the members of the Cabinet believe in one another and believe in their chief, and feel already the exhilaration of taking part in the bringing about of better days. Overwhelmed as these men are just now with their new tasks, serious as they are in facing their responsibilities, they have already imparted to their subordinates a sense of confidence. There is not, apparently, in Washington one vestige left of that traditional idea that the old Democratic party of Jefferson and Jackson is endowed by heaven with the mission to restore the land to the

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simplicity and individual independence of the fathers. That idea may crop out at the Capitol when Congress assembles again, but it is not to be encountered in the neighborhood of the department buildings. Whatever simplicity is aimed at is a new kind of simplicity. Whatever individual liberty is sought is one that is in agreement with these days of industrial interdependence.

This does not mean that the progressiveness of the Administration is indistinguishable from that of the Progressive party, or that all progressives (whether Progressive party men or not) will agree with all the policies adopted and advocated by the Administration. Here, for instance, is the question of water powers. All progressives, whether they belong to the Democratic, Republican, or Progressive party, agree that these water powers should be used, not primarily for the benefit of any class, but for the welfare of the public. The Progressive party, however, believes that this can be done only if the Federal Government, and particularly the Federal Executive, acts upon the principle that everything which is in the public interest is legal, unless it is expressly forbidden; and it also strongly holds that such a great resource as these water powers constitute will never be secured to the use of the people if it is transferred from the Federal Government to the several States. What view the Democratic Administration will take of this point is yet to be discovered; but nothing which the Administration has yet done or said, so far as I have been able to ascertain, will prevent it from taking exactly this same view. Indeed, it is almost inevitable that those who from a Federal office can view the Nation as a whole, whatever their party antecedents may be, will see that the whole Nation has certain interests that are different from and superior to the interest of any of its parts. The President is the only man who actively represents the whole Nation by virtue of the whole people's expressed choice. He cannot fail to see that the Nation itself is more than the sum of all of its parts. This is a Cabinet that has the National view, and although it represents a party that has in the past emphasized the distinctive powers of the States, it may be expected to act in a National spirit.

There is another matter on which there is likely to be a greater difference of opinion between this Democratic Administration and other progressives, particularly members of the Republican and Progressive parties. This is in dealing with combinations and in attempts to ameliorate conditions created by modern industry. All progressives, whatever their party name, believe that no creature of the Government should be more powerful than the Government itself. There are two ways by which the power of the creature can be subordinated to that of the Government that created it. One way is by making the creature corporation weaker than the Government; the other is by making the Government stronger than the creature corporation. One way is by breaking up the corporations and restoring competition; the other way is by putting the Government in charge of all great corporations, and preventing monopoly by compelling all corporations to act fairly and justly. So far as is now ascertainable, the former view is that which will prevail in the present Administration. The Democrats do not believe that this view was fairly tried under Mr. Taft's Administration, in spite of the fact that Attorney-General Wickersham secured from the Supreme Court the famous decisions dissolving the oil and tobacco trusts. They feel that in doing this the Taft Administration was chiefly concerned in vindicating the Sherman Anti-Trust Law, and not in really bringing about competitive conditions in the oil and tobacco industries. The Sherman Anti-Trust Law was vindicated, but, because of the acquiescence of Mr. Taft's Attorney-General in the arrangement devised by the trusts and submitted to the inferior court, competition was not restored. As the process has been described, the Attorney-General secured the conviction of the two trusts, and then gave them their own choice of penalties. Naturally, it is pointed out, the trusts chose the penalty that was not a penalty. What the Democrats believe they are commissioned to do is really to restore competition. It is perfectly fair to call this view progressive, for, though it involves the revitalization of a force that was once much more dominant than it is to-day, it is a view that distinctly looks toward the future and sets forth an ideal toward which to work. Probably the American people would not be satisfied with any solution or attempted solution of the trust question without a fair trial of this doctrine that competition can be and ought to be restored. I mistake the spirit and purpose of this Administration entirely if such an attempt is not honestly, efficiently, and enthusiastically to be made. That I do

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not believe it will succeed is not due at all to any lack of confidence in the purpose of the Administration, but to what seem to me to be the necessary circumstances of the case.

These weeks intervening between Inauguration Day and the assembling of Congress in extraordinary session have afforded little opportunity for the Administration to find itself, much less for it to show its character and temper to the public; but already, not only in its firm note to the Republics of Central and South America, signifying its hope for a friendship based on common belief in law and order, not only in its statement on the Chinese loan, signifying its purpose not to depend upon financiers for proof of its friendship for China, but in the way in which the President and the members of his Cabinet have taken up their work in Washington, the Administration has given proof of its National spirit, its progressive purposes, its adherence to the principle of the merit system in the public service, and its expectation that our industrial problems can be solved by restraining the tendency towards combination and fostering individual enterprise. Disagree with certain policies of the Administration as some progressive Americans certainly will, no one who welcomes the progressive spirit wherever it is seen can resist sharing some of the enthusiasm which the partisan supporters of Mr. Wilson display, and feeling great satisfaction that the new Administration is emphasizing those matters that concern the whole Nation and transcend the interests of party.

THE ENGLISHWOMEN'S GRIEVANCE

BY ALICE STONE BLACKWELL

YOU say of the militant suffragettes:[1] "Their grievances are that the legislative machinery of the United Kingdom is not brought to a standstill while their demands are granted, that the rules of decent and orderly Parliamentary procedure are not violated in their behalf, that upright and public-spirited men are unwilling blithely to cast aside their convictions at the dictates of a mob." This is very far from being a fair statement of the case.

Every House of Commons that has met since 1870 has contained a majority of professed friends of woman suffrage. Suffrage bills have passed their second reading over and over again, by growing majorities, but the Prime Minister, who controls the time of the House, has always refused to grant time for the measure to come up for third reading and final vote. At last this refusal led to militancy on the part of a section of the suffragists.

Either on account of militancy or in spite of it, the majorities for the suffrage bill of late years have become enormous. In 1908 it passed its second reading by a vote of 271 to 92; in 1910 by a vote of 299 to 190; and on May 5, 1911, by a vote of 255 to 88. In each case time for third reading was refused. Finally Mr. Asquith promised that if it passed its second reading once more he would grant time for third reading; and upon this promise militancy ceased completely.

He put off the matter for nearly a year longer, however, and did not allow it to come up until a peculiar political situation had arisen which made a square vote upon the merits of the question impossible.

The Irish Nationalist members hold the balance of power in the present Parliament. Most of them favor woman suffrage, and have voted for it on all previous occasions. But more than a year ago they notified the suffrage leaders that they should not feel able to vote for it if it came up at the same time with Home Rule, because to do so would "embarrass Mr. Asquith," and they would not embarrass him just when he had the Home Rule Bill in hand. Mr. Asquith deliberately refused to let a vote be taken on woman suffrage on repeated occasions when it could have come up uncomplicated with other issues, and decreed that it should come up just at the same time with Home Rule. In addition, he had announced that he was going to introduce a General Electoral Reform Bill, so framed that woman suffrage amendments could be added to it. This drew away a number of votes from the suffrage bill, some

[1] In The Outlook of February 8. An editorial relating to this general subject will be found elsewhere in this issue of The Outlook.—THE EDITORS.

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members preferring to wait and try to carry woman suffrage in just the form they would like best, by some one of the many possible amendments to the general bill. So many men did this that Lloyd George, who advocated this course, boasted that the announcement of the general bill had "torpedoed" the separate woman suffrage bill. Several members also who had promised their constituents to vote for woman suffrage broke their word because of their displeasure with militancy (for Mrs. Pankhurst had regarded the announcement of the General Electoral Reform Bill as a proof that Mr. Asquith did not mean to give the woman suffrage bill fair play, and had gone on the war-path again). In addition, on March 16, 1912, when the woman suffrage bill came up for second reading, sixteen labor members, all of them in favor of suffrage, were absent on account of an emergency in the coal strike; and the bill was defeated by the narrow majority of fourteen votes.

The non-militants then concentrated all their interest and efforts on the suffrage amendments to the General Electoral Reform Bill, only to have the Speaker at the last moment decide (by a ruling which, as Lloyd George pointed out, was utterly unprecedented) that the addition of a woman suffrage amendment would necessitate the withdrawal of the bill!

Almost all American suffragists regret the form that the indignation of the militant suffragettes takes; but it is idle to deny that they have had enormous provocation. Men under like provocation would have burned half England. They did burn Nottingham Castle and a large part of Bristol in 1832, when a bill widening the franchise for men was held up for a short time in Parliament. What would they have done if it had been held up for forty-three years?

Even under these circumstances, the vast majority of the English suffragists remain law-abiding. But the organ of the non-militants, while strongly deprecating violence, says in its issue of January 31: "Every sincere suffragist shares the indignation which inspires the militant societies." Mrs. Millicent Garrett Fawcett, President of the non-militants, writes in "The Englishwoman" for February, 1913: "Experience has shown that under this Government" (meaning this Cabinet) "a free vote on the merits of women's suffrage is unobtainable. . . . Public opinion regards the record of the Government on this question with disgust."

A TAX PROBLEM

THERE has been again introduced into the New York Legislature a measure designed to alleviate living conditions in the metropolis by readjusting the system of taxation. The Salant-Schaap Bill (the present name for the Sullivan-Short Bill defeated last year) provides that the tax rate on buildings shall be reduced during five consecutive years until it is one-half the rate of taxation on land. In order that the city's revenue shall not be decreased, this of course necessitates a corresponding increase in the taxation on land. Advocates of the bill claim that since the total assessed valuation of the land is much greater than the total assessed valuation of the buildings, the present land tax will be increased much less than the present rate on buildings will be decreased. What they hope to accomplish by this means has been summarized as follows by the New York Committee on Congestion of Population:

1. It will secure more of the city's revenue from the most natural source—constantly increasing land values.
2. It will tend to maintain stable land values for use instead of speculation, by limiting prevalent speculation in land.
3. It will encourage the location of factories in the city, because the competition for buyers would keep prices for land within the reach of manufacturers, and prospective industries could secure sites at more attractive prices, decreasing the interest item in fixed charges.
4. It will prevent the increase in rents because a premium will be placed on the construction of buildings and a penalty upon holding land out of use, just the reverse of the present system of taxation.
5. It will mitigate the injustice of the present system of using the taxing power of the State to enrich landowners at the expense of the industrious and the industries of the city.
6. It will tend to reduce the cost of food, clothing, and all other necessaries of life whose price in New York City is kept up through high land values, high rents or taxes paid for places where they are made or sold.
7. It will reduce the cost to the city of land for public purposes such as parks, sites for schools and other public buildings.

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8. It will save some of the $11,000,000 which the city now spends annually on its departments for the relief and care of dependents.

9. It will partially relieve the chief obstacle to the location of more industries in the city by lowering the speculative price of land and lowering taxes and rents for business men.

This same committee has recently held an exhibition portraying these contentions in a graphic manner. It must be confessed that some of the diagrams and cartoons, striking though they were, reminded the observer of that time-honored occupation known as "lifting one's self by one's bootstraps."

These far-reaching recommendations have of course many ardent advocates and many determined opponents, and these adversaries can by no means be divided into property and non-property holders. Much of this opposition is based upon the belief that the bill affords an opening wedge for the single tax movement. The fact that many believers in the single tax are working for the measure confirms the opponents of the bill in this belief. One of the prominent organizations opposed to this bill is the Merchants' Association of New York. Through its Committee on Taxation it has presented some of the most cogent reasons for opposing the bill that we have seen. Here is a short summary:

(1) It is not clear that the evils of congested population would be lessened. It would certainly place a premium upon the building of tall and cheap tenements in parts of the city already overcrowded.

(2) The bill works injustice to present owners of land. Even if it is granted that the community creates land values, nevertheless those values have been bought in good faith by the present owners, and it would be unjust to deprive them of their property without due compensation. The argument that the growth of the city would prevent any appreciable decline in the selling price of real estate ignores the fact that urban property does not increase in value at a uniform rate. Where property is stationary or decreasing in value, the law would amount to actual confiscation of value.

(3) It would in all probability lessen the municipal revenue from taxation, and the determination of the tax rate to meet budgetary requirements would be a difficult work.

(4) It involves the risk that the debt limit of the city would be lowered, because there is no certainty that the admitted loss in land values would be offset by a gain from the value of new buildings.

(5) It introduces the doubtful principle of the single tax. If the encouragement of building in New York through taxation was desirable, the result can be easily accomplished by exempting new buildings from taxation for a short period of years. Such a law would certainly accomplish all that is claimed by the Sullivan-Short Bill and would injure no one.

This report was signed by Professor Joseph F. Johnson, of New York University; Professor E. R. A. Seligman, of Columbia; and the former City Comptroller, Herman A. Metz. With respect to the first contention advocates of this bill would reply that this problem can be met by more stringent building laws and by a supertax on excessively high buildings. The second argument they would say is the familiar "plea for the widowed and orphaned stockholders" often advanced against bills for the regulation of corporations.

Professor J. T. Holdsworth, in his "Economic Survey of Pittsburgh," after quoting the conclusion of the Congestion Committee and of the Merchants' Committee on Taxation, makes the following remarks concerning the bill:

> The change proposed in the tax system is one fraught with far-reaching consequences, and one which should receive the most thoughtful consideration of every citizen. Such a plan should not be adopted except after a thorough understanding of its effect upon all classes of property and upon public revenue and credit. . . .
>
> It seems probable that the objects sought to be attained by this radical change could be reached much more simply by imposing an extra tax on unoccupied or under-improved land, thus making it unprofitable to hold land out of use. From the legal point of view it may be urged that if it is constitutional to reduce the rate on houses, it is equally constitutional to increase the rate on vacant land. This would not be the single tax or any approach to it. It would have all the benefits and none of the disadvantages of the other radical scheme.

The provision for a popular referendum contained in the Salant-Schaap Bill makes the open and frank discussion of this bill of double interest to the public. If the bill should pass the Legislature, the question would come up for decision in the fall of 1913. Whether this particular bill passes or not, the principles involved should be thoroughly studied by voters throughout the country. It is one solution for some of our civic problems that is likely to be placed before us with growing and insistent emphasis.[1]

[1] Readers interested in this general subject will like also to read Mr. Richard Spillane's article called "Taxing Enterprise," to be found elsewhere in this issue.

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THE OHIO FLOODS

CAN SUCH CALAMITIES BE PREVENTED?

BY THEODORE ROOSEVELT

EVERY American may justly be proud of the energy and efficiency with which his countrymen deal with great disasters like the San Francisco earthquake, the Baltimore fire, and the floods in the Ohio Valley. He may also well be proud of the unquenchable courage with which the sufferers from these calamities rebuild their cities and homes, repair the overwhelming damage to their property and their business enterprises, and take up again without delay or repining their work of activity and achievement. Such courage and efficiency give a clear proof of the ability of the American people to solve the problems of their National life, no matter how great those problems may be, when they once grasp their true proportions and significance.

One of the greatest of our National problems is that involved in the conservation of our forests, rivers, and water power. While I was President, and during the years since I left the Presidency, I have given a great deal of time and thought to the study of this problem. It may be that some of my conclusions will be of help at this time, when every thoughtful citizen is asking himself whether such floods as those which have spread havoc and ruin through the tributary valleys of the Mississippi can be prevented. I think they can.

Just one month ago, on March 5, I wrote a letter to my friend Mr. John M. Parker, of New Orleans, on this subject. The letter was prompted by some photographs which he had sent me and which portray the misery, the terrific loss, the ruin wrought on the plantations of the rich Mississippi Valley by the floods of last year. In this article I shall repeat the substance of my letter to Mr. Parker.

During the spring and summer of 1912 hundreds of farms along the Mississippi River, from Cairo to the Gulf, were flooded because of the inadequacy of a levee system, unsupplemented by source-stream control, to keep great floods within the channel of the river. More than one hundred thousand persons were driven from their homes, and some were drowned. Homes, buildings, agricultural implements, corn, forage, crops, cattle, horses, and hogs were destroyed in large numbers, and the wild animal life taken by the floods cannot be computed. Health problems of dangerous importance were created, and the injury to business and commerce aggregated hundreds of millions of dollars. In order that the suffering by human beings might be reduced, the Federal Government promptly appropriated $6,000,000 for the purchase of food and for the repair of broken levees. But not one cent was appropriated for the solution of the monster economic problem involved, or for the correction of the fundamental evil that has been created through the changes wrought by man in the watershed of the Nation's greatest drainage system.

In January, 1913, a single tributary, the Ohio, rose, and floods in the valley of that river did great damage between Pittsburgh and Cairo, and so swelled the waters of the Mississippi between Cairo and the Gulf as to cause the breaking of the Beulah levee, in the State of Mississippi, a second time within twelve months, thereby flooding the cotton plantations of four most fertile counties.

Levees built on the lower Mississippi will not prevent great and destructive floods in the Ohio and the Missouri Rivers, and these floods, forming without check as a result of accelerated run-off from denuded mountain sides, tile-drained farms, and generally improved drainage, gather enough force by the time they reach the Mississippi River to destroy the levees and turn farms into reservoirs. In this way much valuable property is destroyed, navigable channels are spoiled, power and needed water are wasted, and all because the Nation has been so poor in purpose that it has not seen fit to turn a National agency of waste and destruction into a National agency of prosperity.

The valleys of the Mississippi River and its tributaries cannot be permanently protected from floods unless four things are done:

First. The Mississippi River must be treated as a unit, with all its tributaries, from source to mouth.

Second. The levee system must be brought up to standard for its entire length,

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and thereafter maintained by the Federal Government.

Third. The levee system must be supplemented by adequate revetments that will protect caving banks; and

Fourth. The levee system must be further supplemented by source-stream control which will lower the crest of the floods in the Mississippi Valley and thereby relieve the pressure on the levee.

Source-stream control will mean flood waters conserved for use in the irrigation of dry lands, for the development of hydro-electric power, and for the supplementing of the dry-season flow for the purposes of navigation.

Bank revetments will mean prevention of soil erosion, of soil waste, and of the formation of navigation-impeding sand bars.

The building of standard levees by the Federal Government, fully justified by the fact that the necessity therefor arises from the increasing volume of flood flow in the drainage of many States, will mean uniformity, economy, and systematic protection in so far as levees can be made to protect the low country.

The treating of the Mississippi watershed as a unit from the mouths of streams to their sources will mean the co-ordination of the work of the Federal engineers, of the Reclamation Service, of the Forestry Bureau, of the Division of Soils, of the Geodetic Survey, of the Mississippi River Commission, and of the National effort to turn floods into power, arid regions into gardens, and marshes into farms. All this might be done by one act of the Federal Congress. We can lift the rivers out of politics by enacting a single adequate measure, establishing a policy, and providing continuing funds, exactly as was done in the case of the Panama Canal.

THE NATIONAL RED CROSS AT WORK

BY CONSTANCE D. LEUPP

EARLY in the afternoon of Tuesday, March 25, the telephone bell rang in the office of the National Red Cross at the War Department in Washington.

"Miss Boardman," said a man's voice, "this is the office of the Associated Press. The Miami River is rising in Ohio, and the town of Dayton is partly under water. Other rivers are rising, and it looks as if there might be serious trouble."

Miss Mabel Boardman, Chairman of the National Relief Board of the American National Red Cross, ascertained the meager details, rang off, dictated a telegram to Governor Cox, of Ohio, asking if he needed help, and turned her attention back to the really serious situation in tornado-swept Omaha.

Governor Cox telegraphed back his thanks, but said the trouble was not serious. Then followed three telegrams in quick succession the same afternoon, saying that matters were getting worse, the water was still rising, there were already many deaths, and that the State would be glad to have the assistance of the National Red Cross.

The officers were not taken unawares; they never are, for their object in life is to lie in ambush awaiting the unexpected. And the machinery of the Red Cross is a very perfect, well-oiled piece of mechanism that can be set in motion by the pressing of one lever at headquarters.

To be sure, the Director-General, Mr. Ernest P. Bicknell, had started twenty-four hours before for Nebraska; it was problematical what he would do when he heard the "C. Q. D." from Ohio, and he was out of reach of the telegraph. To insure a director on the scene of action in both places, the ever-vigilant Miss Boardman telegraphed Mr. Lies, of Chicago, to proceed to Omaha, and Mr. Edmonds, of Cincinnati, to take charge in Dayton pending Mr. Bicknell's arrival.

So much, and a good deal more, was already accomplished before people of the country at large learned through the morning papers of Wednesday, the 26th, that a fearful calamity had overtaken Ohio.

By that time a rescue party had been detailed and was hurrying towards each threatened district along the rivers that were still rising with terrifying rapidity. These were no armies of well-meant, unskilled volunteers,

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but trained bands of emergency workers, doctors and nurses, each under a competent general who had dropped his regular work at the Red Cross call to arms. Whatever you do every day for your living, if you are on the Red Cross emergency roll—if, in other words, you are allowed to help in time of trouble—it means that you are among the elect of your kind.

On the afternoon of the 26th the office of the Red Cross in the War Department is a particularly peaceful-looking spot. A casual glance around would never lead the uninitiated to suspect that the greatest disaster this generation has known is in progress, and that the relief work is being directed from this little room.

At her desk sits Miss Boardman with her hat still on, alternately dictating telegrams and conversing on the long-distance telephone all up and down the Atlantic seacoast. A secretary is ticking a typewriter, another is being interviewed by a reporter in a corner, and an army officer is calmly reading in the afternoon paper a highly colored and brilliantly imaginative account of the news from the front.

A messenger boy enters with a telegram and leans negligently against the desk with the vacuous expression that sits eternally on the face of the messenger boy. There are no floods, no wars for him; just an everlasting round of dodging in and out of elevators with despatches.

Miss Boardman tears the telegram open, glances it over hastily, calls up the Associated Press and gives over the telephone the news that brings forth an "extra" within an hour in cities all over the country. A message has actually come through from the beleaguered, burning city of Dayton—a cry for help has come at last over the one intact wire that spans the flood.

It is not much in the way of news; but the American people want everything there is; and the Red Cross is glad to give it to them, for where, but to the generosity of these same American people, does the Red Cross look for the money and provisions with which to carry on the work of relief?

Mr. Edmonds has telegraphed from Dayton that he needs cooked food, clothing, bedding, doctors, and nurses.

"No tents?" asks the reporter, and is informed that the Secretary of War has despatched those long ago from the nearest posts.

From Akron Miss Gladwin, Chairman of the local Red Cross Nursing Association, has proceeded with a staff of eighteen nurses to report at Columbus to Major Fauntleroy, who is the army medical officer in charge of the division hospital being assembled there. Major Fauntleroy has a staff of eight army surgeons besides the equipment, which, though consisting of tents and fittings which can be packed and carried to the battlefield, is as complete as that of any hospital.

Thirty nurses from the near-by towns are already at Dayton, and Cincinnati is to send ten more. Mr. James Jackson, of Cleveland, has taken charge at Piqua and Sidney.

Dr. Edward T. Devine, of New York, has telephoned that he is ready to report for duty anywhere he is wanted. Ordinarily the Red Cross makes requisitions on its near-by members; but Dr. Devine grew up near the scene of the present disaster, and, besides being at home there, he is particularly valuable because of his experience in San Francisco, at the sinking of the Slocum and the Titanic, and at the Triangle fire, so Miss Boardman asks him to go to Columbus and report to the Governor.

The Cincinnati and Cleveland Red Cross chapters are instructed to go ahead and raise funds and supplies.

Telegrams have been despatched to the Governors of all the States, to the Red Cross State Boards and to local chapters, appealing to all for aid. In other words, the Red Cross is calling out all the reserves, which is a most unusual procedure even in very grave situations; this means an appeal for money and supplies published in every daily paper in the United States. On the morrow the money will come rolling in, and the little band of workers in the home office will have plenty of bookkeeping and receipt-writing, besides the work of holding themselves constantly responsive to the outside world by telephone and telegrams. Letter-writing has become a lost art; the typewriters are used only to write out despatches.

At half-past four Miss Boardman rises and pulls down the roller top of her desk.

"Mr. McGee, will you get out the atlas and look up all the large towns near the flooded district where we haven't chapters, and wire the mayors for aid?" She waves a handful of telegrams. "Oh, and this telegraphing is going to be a big expense to us; better ask the companies for free service." There is a tradition that no soulless corpora-

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tion has ever refused one of these requests from the Red Cross.

"Here are two checks that came in to-day from people in the city," she continues. "Will you please send them to Mr. Reeside, so that the district committee may have the credit for them on their books? And here," handing a slip of paper to her secretary, "is where I can be reached from eight until ten-thirty, and at this house from ten-thirty to twelve; before and after that at home."

And Miss Boardman draws on her gloves and pulls down her veil with the unruffled composure of one who has just completed a routine day's work. To-morrow will bring complications of a different kind, she knows, for, besides the bookkeeping and care of the money, there will be many blundering, well-meant offers of help—out-of-the-way towns which have collected supplies and do not know how to forward them; theatrical companies who will give their services if she will make the arrangements, etc.; and these things must not be allowed to clog the smooth perfection of the machinery which is working to fill the greatest needs of the stricken communities in the shortest possible time.

Now a word about the machinery itself.

In 1905 the Red Cross was reorganized and put on its present basis. The President of the United States is always its President, and the executive officers make their headquarters in the capital. Miss Boardman is the Chairman of the National Relief Board, and Mr. Bicknell is the National Director, which means that he has charge in the field when the disaster is serious enough to require National aid.

Small disasters are handled by the local organizations. The Governor of each State is the President of the State Board, which consists of six or eight well-known business and professional men who have charge of raising funds and supplies locally. This board has nothing whatsoever to do with the relief work, which is in the charge of the institutional members. These institutional members are all of them charity organizations, and the best and most efficient of their kind. Less than twenty in the whole country qualify for membership, but these are geographically widely scattered. An officer, ordinarily the secretary, of the institutional member nearest the scene of the disaster is the first one to proceed thither. He takes charge of the relief work, but never has the task of raising money. Besides the staff of trained workers in his own society to call upon for aid, he is also chairman of a committee consisting of a member from each of the other active charity and social organizations within the city. In addition to the State boards and the institutional members, there are the local chapters in smaller places.

All this sounds much more complicated than it really is, for when a call to arms comes each steps into his appointed place and does his prearranged task.

For instance, when the office in Washington first hears of a disaster, a telegram is sent at once to the Governor of the State where it occurs to find out if the State can handle it or if National help is wanted. At a request for National aid the President promptly issues a proclamation and appeal, and this is followed by the appeals of the Governors if deemed necessary. The money collected locally is sent to Washington, and from there to the Governor of the afflicted State.

Four thousand nurses, living and practicing all over the country, are at the service of the Red Cross. A register of these nurses is kept in every large city throughout the country, so that the chairman in charge has only to send for those nearest at hand. A nurse who is on a case when a summons comes is of course excused, but must hold herself in readiness for a summons as soon as she is off duty, if the crisis is not then passed.

Perhaps half of the graduate nurses of the country could not qualify for the Red Cross register. Besides requiring a degree from a good school, this stern taskmaster requires two years of active experience, personal integrity, very sound physique, and a devotion which will make the nurses willing to come for just half the regular fees, the Red Cross in this accepting the rate of pay in vogue for the army nurses.

Understudies are everywhere provided throughout this marvelous system, so that nothing is thrown out of gear even when the National Director is lost. It is miraculously free from red tape. For years now it has in times of peace prepared for war; but it stands armed and vigilant against the elements rather than against a human foe.

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THE CHINA OF TO-DAY

BY SUN YAT-SEN

LATE PROVISIONAL PRESIDENT OF THE CHINESE REPUBLIC

AN INTERVIEW WITH HAMILTON W. MABIE

Dr. Sun Yat-sen is doubtless the best known of all the Chinese republican leaders. He is a South Chinaman, but was educated in Honolulu, where his father was in business. He became a Christian, learned to speak English fluently, and got many ideas of the world outside China. Afterwards he studied medicine at Canton, and engaged in business there. Conscious of the miserable conditions under which his countrymen were existing, Sun Yat-sen has apparently always been a Radical, and a very active Radical, in his efforts to bring about betterment in China. He soon saw that revolutionary measures would be necessary, and was implicated in a plot to seize the Government at Canton and its provinces, this to become the base of a general insurgent government which would finally overthrow the Manchus. A number of Dr. Sun's colleagues were put to death, but he escaped and went to Hongkong, where he became a British subject. For a long time he resided at Singapore, in the British Straits Settlements, surrounded by many revolutionists. Later he came to America and enlisted the Chinese in the new movement wherever he went. When the general revolution finally did occur and triumph, the delegates from the revolted provinces, in a convention at Nanking, the ancient capital of China, elected Dr. Sun President of the Provisional Government of the United Provinces of China. Certainly if any one deserved to be President of a Chinese Republic because of long service to the republican cause, Dr. Sun would seem to have been marked out for that distinction. Later Dr. Sun showed a fine example of patriotism in giving way to the Presidency of Yuan Shi-kai, upon whom China as a whole could better unite. In electing Yuan, the National Assembly declared of Dr. Sun that "such an example of purity of purpose and self-sacrifice is unparalleled in history."—THE EDITORS.

THE general state of affairs in China to-day is much better than under the old régime; the country is more united than formerly. Under the old régime China was always in disorder; now communication is better between the different parts of the country and between China and other countries, and this has resulted in greatly unifying our country. Now if there is fighting in one part of the country, it is known all over China; the whole country knows what is going on. This is the result of the development of the newspaper and the telegraph. The average man in China to-day is interested in politics, and there seems to be a real awakening all over the country. In former days there was fighting going on continually between the clans—feuds, etc.—but the report of such fights did not get into general circulation, either in China or abroad. Now, owing to the sensitiveness of communication, every little scrap of a few troops or a small trouble here and there is reported broadcast, with the result that an impression is formed in the minds of other countries that China is having much more fighting since the Revolution than before; while in reality there is little fighting going on—very little as compared with former days.

Since the Revolution there have sprung up something like one thousand daily newspapers, as against forty or fifty previously, and some years ago there were even less, and those only in seaport towns. The telegraph system is spread over a much greater territory, and news is carried all over the country to every village as the blood is carried to the parts of the body. The people are hungry for news not only of their own country but of the world. Every one that can read the papers does so, and others get the information by word of mouth.

That there is a greater unity in China is proved by the strength of the anti-opium movement, a movement which could not have been carried on to anywhere near the present extent of co-operation and effectiveness in former days. The Chinese all seem to respond to the general national movements of the country.

The Chinese are very eager to get an education, and every child that has any chance at all to go to school does so. There is no need for compulsory education. The progress of education is very rapid, and we are now considering and planning a public school system for the country. The traditional education of old China has already gone out, and the leaders of the country to-day have been educated largely under Western influence.

Under the old régime there was a kind of public opinion, but it was not united, nor so

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general. News could not be easily communicated—it took a long time for news to spread through the country; but now it takes only a few days. The Chinese people are very glad of the change that has come about, and the Government has made a place in the affection of the people. The feeling toward the foreigner is more than friendly, and the people are looking for foreign leaders and teachers. The Chinese people understand the friendship of America for China, and realize that the United States has been disinterested.

The prospects of Christianity are much better now than under the old order. There are a good many Christian men in the Government.

The Chinese people to-day are prospering financially; they understand agriculture better and are introducing new means of development of industry. There is a greater freedom for development than before. During the past two years the wealth of the people has increased, though the Government itself is poor. Perhaps the mass of the Chinese people do not realize the great natural wealth of China, but the leaders and educated people do understand and appreciate it.

I would say that political progress in China is going on as rapidly as is wise. I think that China will become a great nation through the development of her people under popular institutions. We expect to remain peaceful unless forced to war by the Powers. However, it seems likely that Russia will try to take the very heart of China away. My idea is not to let the people get the habit of war. When once the Chinese get the desire to fight, it is very difficult to stop them. Before the Revolution it was very hard to arouse the people to fight for their own rights and liberty, and it took more than twenty years before they could be convinced that they should fight. Now that they have begun to fight, and their aim has been obtained, the leaders wish to stop the fighting, but it has continued because it is so hard to check the people.

The Yellow Peril is created by the Western nations, and there will be no Yellow Peril unless the West creates it. We do not believe in the partition of China. The agitators take that stand in their endeavor to convince the people that they are in danger; however, when the people realize they are in danger, they will be really safe, and will take steps at once to protect themselves. We are aiming to deal on terms of equality with the West. If we can obtain this end peacefully, there will be universal peace; but if we cannot obtain it peacefully we must obtain it with arms, and then there will be a new fighting people in the world. My idea is to seek universal peace, but that peace must come from China. Let China avoid arming herself. The Western nations must avoid awakening the military spirit in China. The nations are now beginning to talk about disarmament, but it is going to be a very difficult task because they have been arming themselves for so many years. China has been accustomed to yield to other Powers, and she will be quite content to avoid arming herself at all. War will be brought about only by the interference of the Western Powers in the affairs of China.

I am working for friendly relations between Japan and China. It is fortunate that many Japanese realize that the true Japanese policy is one of friendship with China. It is best for both countries as well as for the world in general.

The general election for members of the national Congress is taking place now in China, and in two or three months this national Congress will elect a permanent President. This election is going on peacefully. At present our constitution is only provisional, but we are now working on a permanent one. Yuan Shi-kai is a provisional President. I favor Yuan Shi-kai for President and have always supported him. My party is called the Nationalistic party and is in the majority now. There are also two other political parties—the Republican and the Democratic parties. The Nationalistic party was first in the field and stands for republicanism; the Republican party stands for nearly the same principles, but the leaders of this party, who were old officials and out of office at the time of the formation of the new Government, seized the opportunity, when the new leaders were busy with the public affairs, to form this Republican party and take the name and the ideas which of right belonged to the Nationalistic party. The Republican party was not formed until after the Republic was well under way. The Democratic party is much newer and as yet has not much of a foothold. There are perhaps ten or twenty members in the national Congress. This party stands for practically the same things as do the other parties, because all China is for republicanism. There

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may be a difference of opinion as to methods, but all the parties are strongly republican. The Nationalistic party is perhaps more advanced, especially along the lines of social reform.

We intend to avoid in China, as far as possible, the dangers of monopoly and inhuman conditions of labor. We are undertaking to build state railways. There will be private railway companies, for we are encouraging private companies to build railways in order that they may be built quickly; but the private companies will be unable to monopolize the transportation of the whole country. Railways are among the first things that China needs.

China wishes to be left alone to develop herself. I hope that America will continue her policy of friendship toward China.

In regard to the recognition of China by the other nations, I would say that it can come only when all the Powers agree. The cause of the delay in recognition is due to the unwillingness of some of the Powers to recognize the new Government. The reason for this is that some of the Powers wish to take this opportunity to seize more territory, like Russia, which has recognized Mongolia instead of China. She wants to persuade the other Powers to recognize Mongolia before China. As long as China is not recognized, no other Power can say anything about Mongolia, and the aggressive Powers are now free to do anything they like in China, and are aiming at the partition of the country. When the Powers agree among themselves to recognize China, they will do so together; but meantime some of them are doing their best to delay such recognition. England seems to be looking to the settlement of the status of Tibet; France will follow the lead of Russia; Germany is favorable to recognition, I think, and will act with the United States and Japan.

I do not expect that the popular movement will receive any serious setback; I expect it to make steady progress towards a complete reorganization of all parts of China.

TAXING ENTERPRISE

BY RICHARD SPILLANE

Mr. Spillane, the author of "Driven from the City," here presents another experience of a manufacturer exactly as it was told to him. Elsewhere in this issue of The Outlook will be found an article which, under the title "A Tax Problem," discusses questions akin to those raised in this story of actual happening.—THE EDITORS.

THE history of my business is not different from that of many other manufacturing concerns. My troubles are the common troubles ten thousand others suffer under. We all know they exist; we all would like to lessen them, but we are almost helpless. How great is the handicap and how many are the obstacles we have to overcome, few persons outside the manufacturing sphere realize.

Forty years ago my father started business in a loft, in what is now the downtown district of a Middle West city. He had eleven men. His capital was small. He manufactured machinery that has lightened the burdens of men throughout the civilized world. He had courage, ability, and determination. He was not only a good manufacturer, but a wonderful salesman. He took great pride in his work. He never let a piece of machinery go out of his shop unless it was perfect. He prospered, and as his business grew he required more space. First he hired other lofts in adjacent buildings, then he bought a building or two. Still his business broadened. Every few years he had to have more space. He could not always spare the money from his business to buy the property he needed, so that which he could not buy he rented.

People who owned property around my father's manufactory took advantage of the needs of this industrial space, and they doubled and trebled rents on him. They would not give long leases, but rented only from year to year, and every year they raised the rent. But still the business spread, and the factory rambled all over the neighborhood. In some instances my father managed to have narrow alleys closed by public consent; in other instances he tunneled under thor-

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oughfares or bridged across them, in order to connect his various buildings. Many, many men fattened on my father's industry. For example:

A German saloon-keeper owned a piece of land separating two departments of our work. It was a ramshackle old building that the German used, and the land and the building cost the saloon man only $4,000. We bought that ramshackle structure sixteen years ago, but we had to give $16,000 to the German in order to acquire it.

Now, you understand that there was nothing to increase the value of this saloon man's land except the fact that we needed it for manufacturing purposes. In other words, the saloon-keeper squeezed $12,000 out of us without contributing one cent to the community, either in money or effort. We were bled by all the property-owners in our neighborhood. The more our business expanded, the higher they raised the figures on their property. We were the workers. They held us up for a good share of our profits.

Things got to such a pass that we could stand it no longer. We were cramped for space, but could not get the space without being charged an extortionate price. We explained the situation to the property-owners, but it was no use. Then we determined on radical action. Seven years ago we moved our plant to open land on the outskirts of the city, where there was little or no population.

We fenced in several acres of land and proceeded to erect buildings so as to bring our organization together in an economical arrangement. When our new buildings were completed, we abandoned the old plant. What do you suppose was the result? All the buildings we formerly occupied are now on the market, with no takers. By reason of our abandoning them they have declined in value to the price they commanded before my father began manufacturing in that little loft forty years ago. The net decline represents about the amount we paid in premiums and excess valuation.

Now, is it just that a manufacturer should be penalized because he is industrious and because, through that industry, he has to have more space for his plant? Why should he be singled out? A railway or any other public service corporation that has to have land for enlargement of its facilities or right of way can, through the courts, bring condemnation proceedings in case owners of property are not willing to sell at a reasonable price. Appraisers are appointed, and the railway or other public service corporation obtains the land it needs at something like its market value.

Why should a railway have greater rights than a manufacturer? We were making machinery essential to society. A railway does not perform a fundamental function other than transportation, yet it is protected from the oppression of real estate agents and land speculators.

We are to-day employing 2,300 men. In other words, our business is a revenue-producer to the community to the extent of our annual pay-roll. These 2,300 men are permanent residents of the city, but they would not be there if it were not for the fact that our industry is established in that city. According to the last quadrennial appraisement it is estimated that every man that moves in, or every child that is born in the community, adds about $500 to the land value. This means that our manufacturing plant has added $1,150,000 to the land values of our city.

Now, considering three to a family instead of four, which is the usual number, this brings the total up to $3,450,000. Our pay-roll is a net revenue to the community, which goes from the merchant to the jobber, and from the jobber to the manufacturer, and in turn to the farmer. It percolates through all the channels of production and trade.

It is customary to consider that the manufacturing business belongs solely to the man or the firm or the corporation which controls it. But, as a matter of fact, it belongs to the community as much as does the court-house or the city hall. The fact that I and my associates have title to the property does not affect the community interest.

My father invested all his earnings back into the business, in the improvement of our product, in the enlargement of our facilities. My associates and I have continued the same policy since my father died. The plant is owned by those active in the business, and none of us has anything, aside from this business, except our homes and a few insurance policies.

The statistics of our city show that there is involved an investment in machinery, lands, buildings, etc., of approximately $1,000 to every man employed. About ten years ago we had a strike, which, in loss of production and profits, importation of strike-breakers

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and detectives, cost us $100,000. The cost of this strike became known in the community through the newspapers, and it was a common expression that we were a rich concern and could afford it. In fact, that the loss of $100,000 meant practically nothing to us.

The fact that this was the only strike that we have had in the forty years of our existence would indicate that we have dealt with our employees justly. I wish we never had had this one strike. It is one of my sorrows. As I look upon it now, I was to blame in a large part. The men were to blame too. They were bent on making trouble. What I cannot forgive myself for is that I did not maintain a closer relationship to them, learn of their discontent earlier, and remedy the wrongs that brought about the trouble.

I have told you that it was current report that we lost $100,000 through that strike. We did not actually lose that amount. The loss was to the community. We would have invested that $100,000 in more machinery, more buildings, and more business in order to employ more men. With this $100,000 that was dissipated through the strike we would have employed one hundred additional men, who would have brought that much more revenue to the city. Now our pay-roll averages approximately $1,000 per year per employee. One hundred additional men means that that strike cut $100,000 from the total of what our pay-roll would have been. Thus the community has lost that many dollars per year. Consider this for ten years and you have $1,000,000 loss to the community. Consider this compounded in the many ways in which such things ramify, and you have a total that is not pleasant to contemplate. Do you appreciate that the community has a decided monetary interest in our plant?

In moving the 2,300 men to the open acreage which we purchased, we thought we had settled one kind of our trouble. We brought all our plant together, in something like an economical arrangement, and this was a great relief to us. Much as we rejoiced over this, we rejoiced still more in our proud belief that the old gray wolf of the land speculator was not looking in at our door any longer. We rejoiced too early. We have another wolf at our door. This is a young one; an offspring of the one that preyed upon us when our manufacturing plant was in the heart of the city.

We found that by moving 2,300 men to the open acreage in the outskirts of the town we created land values around us. A troop of speculators have trailed us. These men are laying out acreage property into town lots, selling the lots to our men and others who are attracted by the system of trade which 2,300 workers naturally would build up. We thought we were establishing our plant on cheap land, yet to-day we find lots adjoining our property selling on a basis of $50 per foot front. The tax appraiser comes along and sees that these 40-foot lots close to our plant and used for store property are selling at $2,000. What do you suppose he does? He estimates that if that storekeeper's land is worth $2,000 a lot, our land is worth as much, if not more, and we have been put on the assessment roll according to that valuation. We are being punished for that which we have built up. We have been fined for our industry; we are punished for investing the earnings back into our business. We put this money back into our business because we had pride in our achievement; because we gloried in the fact that we were producing more and better goods for the benefit of mankind than any other men in our land. We have great pride in the big plant that has resulted from our efforts.

Money is not our only aim. We draw generously from our earnings for our needs, but it has been the one aim of our lives to increase and to broaden our business. This business has become a monument to our families. We might have been selfish and have prospered more. We have been producers, workers. If, instead of being producers and workers, we had invested our earnings in real estate and become parasites, we probably would have done much better in a financial sense.

At first glance you would suppose that when the tax assessor puts his valuation of $2,000 a lot on our land, and we pay the increased tax, that ends it so far as we are concerned. But it does not. The effect upon us, aside from the tax, is indirect, but is more vital than the tax itself. As the land values increase around our place, it is natural that the men who work for us, and who live on these lands, will have to pay more rent or more for their home, or higher taxes. The land around our plant affects our pay-roll. Speculators are beginning to understand that the price of this land to-day is less than it is going to be five years from now. When

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our workmen buy from the speculators who have grabbed up this land, or rent from those who have put up houses, they must pay both principal and interest. Their rents become higher and they have less for food and clothing; they naturally will come to us for increased wages. If they do not get the increase, they are likely to strike and paralyze our industry. The price we pay for this strike is the land speculator—a man who has not handed one dollar, either in service or industry, to our community wealth, but has fattened wholly by our productive industry.

We made one serious mistake, in view of the present evil system of our tax laws, when we relocated our plant. We should have acquired all of the land around our factory in order to control the price, and then we should have sold it to our men at a moderate cost. But even this would have been doing an injustice, because we can provide a greater revenue to the community and perform a higher duty to society by making this investment in machinery and buildings. As I consider it now, it probably was better to do as we did rather than protect ourselves against the machinations of the land investor.

I moved our plant out into the country to escape real estate and tax injustice. I have not escaped either. No man objects to paying an honest or a just tax, but he does object to an unjust tax. Manufacturers throughout America have suffered as I am suffering, and all the while they see crafty, clever men, who are doing nothing for the world's progress, escaping an honest tax on their property simply because they will not improve it. For example, buildings in the downtown districts of the city should pay the bulk of taxation, those nearest the center of trade and traffic being assessed the highest. In our city, right in the heart of the busiest section, you will find various one-story structures, "taxpayers," they are called, built to provide carrying charges until such time as the owner thinks it wise to put up a fair-sized structure or a sky-scraper. These "taxpayers" not infrequently adjoin some of the finest structures in the city. The tax on the "taxpayer" is trifling in comparison with the tax on the sky-scraper. In the same neighborhood, too, there are a lot of superannuated buildings, structures that were erected forty, fifty, sixty, and in some instances seventy years ago. Rents in them for offices are very high, but the tax on these buildings is very low because the buildings are not worth much. As a matter of fact, these superannuated buildings are among the best revenue-producers in the city. All land values are based on desirability, and in the case of the mercantile section it is traffic that provides the element of desirability. Naturally, each of our employees supplies a unit of this traffic. If taxes were placed on the lands of these congested sections, and laws passed that would relieve a man from a fine for putting up a building and performing a social service, then the owners of some of these superannuated buildings, and these taxpayers who are holding the land simply for increased value, would be forced to pull down those structures and put up ones that would pay them revenue. Rents to merchants would be cheaper by reason of the competition of many and more tenantable buildings. Under a proper system of taxation there would not be the inequality and injustice that there is to-day. It seems to me that the people who perform useful functions to society are burdened with the heaviest taxes, while a lot of rich but indolent people live on unearned increment.

Our whole taxation system is wrong. There ought to be a readjustment. Suppose I make a chair for my own use in my own house. The community has no right to participate either in its value or in its use, but the tax man comes along and says: "This is a perfectly good chair. The man who is able to make and sit in such a chair certainly is able to pay taxes." So he assesses, say, five per cent of its estimated value, and as long as the chair continues in use and I do not hide it, five per cent of its value goes into the public till, until its entire value has been absorbed in twenty years.

My enterprise and general desire to produce is dulled by reason of the fact that the community takes away my product in installments. The same principle is proved if the chair had been made in a factory, except in this latter case it is not only taxed as merchandise, but the buildings and the machinery of the factory are taxed, all of which must be added to the final selling price. The individual or the industry producing with hands or brains is penalized.

The purpose of taxation is for public administration and for public improvement. It is supposed to be for the good of all. That which is for the good of all should be derived from that which all produce, and that is the land values of the community. Land values

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are made by population. They are socially created.

To my mind, the tax question is more important to the American people than the tariff. Unjust taxation has hampered the growth of many an industrial establishment and, I believe, has ruined many a concern. It has driven hundreds of plants away from one community to another, uprooted tens of thousands of families, and done no end of wrong. The man who solves this problem so that the inequalities and the injustices of the present system are wiped out will do a great work indeed.

THE SPECTATOR

THE Spectator, of course, had always heard of Nantucket. He knew it was off somewhere south of Massachusetts—or was it Rhode Island?—and was a quaint, picturesque, sandy place, with a town crier and several curious old customs. He remembered reading once a life of Maria Mitchell, but the only things he recalled were her discovery of a comet from the top of a building, and a description of being cut off for weeks one winter from the mainland by snow and ice, and how impossible it would ever be to catch up with what was going on in the outside world, with no letters or newspapers for so long a time. And now the Spectator was actually going to make this vagueness a reality.

The first thing that he found out was that Nantucket was much farther away than he had thought—a good three hours' sail from Woods Hole, and part of the time out of sight of any land. To be exact, Nantucket lies away thirty miles from Martha's Vineyard; so that when he reached there he realized how the old lady felt who said, "Nantucket was just like being on a ship at sea, only you didn't get anywhere." As he drove up the narrow, winding streets, and past the gray-shingled houses with their roof-walks, from which in the old days the women used to watch for their husbands coming back from long whaling voyages, he was surprised to see paved streets and electric lights. The sight of the name of a hotel on the main street brought back a story some one had told him of a visit in her childhood to Nantucket; when arriving with her parents at this hotel they were told that they had no vacant rooms just then, but "they could put them in Coffin's." He soon learned that Coffin was a family name in Nantucket. A stranger came up the street and inquired for Captain Coffin. "Which one?" said the islander. He did not know. "Well," said he, "just walk to the end of Main Square and call Captain Coffin, and one hundred and fifty will answer to the call, and you can take your pick."

The town crier was dead and had no successor. But, fortunately, Nantucket had kept a character of its own. Oh, the restfulness of hearing no honking automobiles nor clanging trolleys! The only noises were the neighborly chats and inquiries across the narrow streets, and conversations passed from house to house. The Spectator found, however, that there was much sightseeing to do. First, there was the oldest house. "Why," said a Nantucketer, "should any one travel to Europe, when we have the oldest house here at home?" It was built in 1686 as a marriage gift to Jethro Coffin, grandson of the pioneer, Tristram Coffin, founder of the family of Coffins. Near the door is an Indian peep-hole, and that such a thing was a necessary precaution is shown by the story that Mrs. Coffin was once startled from sleep by the sound of something dropping through the ceiling of her closet. It was a prowling Indian. She heard him sharpening his knife on the hearthstone, and, seizing her baby, she fled. The Indian followed, but was intoxicated, and stumbled on the steep winding steps of the staircase, and this gave her time to escape to a safe shelter. The house has three fireplaces, one of them of enormous size, large enough for the family to sit inside and look up at the stars. The cement between the bricks is made of seashells, and the house has the usual beams and ship's knees in the corners of the rooms that all the oldest Nantucket houses show. On the outside of the chimney is a horseshoe made in the bricks, supposed to have been placed there as a sign of good luck against

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the Evil One, the house having been built at the time of the witchcraft excitement.

The old Nantucket windmill is a conspicuous sight, not only on post-cards but in the landscape. It was built in 1746, thirty years before the Revolution. It was used up to twenty or thirty years ago. An old Nantucketer told the Spectator how she remembered, when a child, sitting up in the window chewing wheat and looking out at the harbor, and how a little schoolmate of hers took a ride on the wings and fell off, breaking both her legs. The custodian tells the visitors how the logs and timbers and big grindstones were brought from abroad. "Abroad!" exclaimed the Spectator. "Yes, from Massachusetts." Visitors to the island are called strangers, or foreigners, or off-islanders. A small boy wrote a composition on Napoleon. He said that Napoleon was a great man, that he was a fighter, and a great leader—but—he was an off-islander. A party were visiting the Nantucket jail, and one of them commiserated the wife of the jailer for having to stay in such a place. "But," she replied after a moment's thought, "they are our own people." A man was arrested for drunkenness, and his sentence was suspended on condition that he "take the first boat to America."

One night the Spectator went to see Jupiter through Maria Mitchell's telescope. He sympathized with a little boy near him who exclaimed in a disappointed voice, "Why, I thought it would look star-shaped!" The telescope stands in an observatory next the house, now kept open by an association as a memorial of Miss Mitchell's life and work, with a library and a natural history museum, and lectures and classes in astronomy and botany. After the Spectator had visited the Oldest House, the Windmill, the Historical Museum, the Friends' Meeting-House, the Old North Vestry, built in 1711, the old Burying Grounds and seen the tombstones of innumerable Folgers and Gardners, Macys and Starbucks, and the other first families of Nantucket, and explored the winding streets and narrow lanes, he was invited to take a cruise across the island. (In Nantucket all the terms are nautical. One "navigates" a house, which is furnished "even to the rigging." If a woman's dress is blowing it is "adrift," and one "beats it up the street.") Then he experienced the most delicious and restful drives he had ever known, across the moors, over rutted roads, roads which seemed to begin and end and go everywhere and anywhere. Sometimes there were four and five roads running along together; and before any real roads were made there were double ruts for double teams and single ruts for single. For so small an island, only about fifteen miles by three, the Spectator never ceased to wonder how one could get such a feeling of space and distance. Nowhere had he felt it more, except above timber line in the Rocky Mountains, where thousands of miles separated him from the sea. When the Spectator took his first drive, the moors (the islanders call them the Commons) were carpeted with mealy plum and arbutus, and the bushes were white with beach plum blossoms. When he left they were still carpeted, but with goldenrod and asters, and the bushes were flaming with their autumn colors of red and gold; and always the air was fragrant with sweet fern and bay and wind-stunted pines, and all the other delicate odors of out-of-doors.

How much there was to do in Nantucket! The drives and sails, the trip in the little toy train across the island to 'Sconset, the bathing in the warm and buoyant water, and above all the life of the little gray old town. Old inhabitants told him stories about the prosperous days, when whaling was the industry, and Nantucket was the richest city of Massachusetts; about the great fire of 1846; about the old Friends' School, and their meetings and customs, and many other interesting things. He went "horseback-ing," and "rantomscooting" (rambling over the moors), and "flinking" (looking in at the shop windows), and hearing the "drift" (the news). As one old sailor said, "I like to sag around, and there's usually other loafers to sag around with me."

All too soon the time came for the Spectator to leave. He stood on the deck of the steamer, taking his last look at the gold ball of the clock tower on the old Unitarian church shining in the sun, at the spires and towers and lookouts, at the gray houses, now huddled together and now spreading out like a great city; and he sighed when the island faded away into the distance and became what the Indians named it, Na-tucket, the Place of the Far-Away Land.

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THE NEW BOOKS

A BOOK A WEEK

THERE are some books into which one instinctively plunges a thumb *à la* Jack Horner in order to pick out the plums of anecdote. Such a book was Sir Henry Lucy's "Sixty Years in the Wilderness," published three years ago; and not less "plummy" in stories of English people and politics is the second series of what Sir Henry calls in sub-title "Passages by the Way," just issued in book form by E. P. Dutton & Co. Few men of our generation have had more intimate knowledge of English public affairs and public men than the author, who was for years the "Toby, M. P." of "Punch's" "Essence of Parliament," and is a veteran journalist and political writer. The book is particularly rich in stories about Disraeli, Lord Randolph Churchill, and Professor Blackie. When the author visited Professor Blackie at Oban, Blackie rushed out of the crowd on the pier and "in sight of a ship-load of passengers publicly kissed me." Later Sir Henry found an entry in Blackie's published letters which, as he hopes, justifies the disconcerting incident. Blackie wrote: "On Monday I made an interesting acquaintance, James Martineau, the Unitarian professor and preacher, who had been up at Braemar for two months and preached last Sunday forenoon in this place. In the afternoon I came home with him and kissed him because he is good." Sir Henry adds: "It is pleasant even to be able to hope that I was kissed because I was good."

Matthew Arnold, apostle of sweetness and light, the author says, bubbled over with fun with those he liked, while others acted upon him like a wet blanket. He had "a curious way of telling little stories against himself." Here are two:

Talking about Mrs. Arnold, he said: "Ah, you should know my wife. She has all my sweetness and none of my airs."

Another story related to the episode of his unsatisfactory visit to the United States as a lecturer, a work undertaken at great personal sacrifice in order to meet what he regarded as a duty to his family. When the project was mooted, Arnold urged that it was not hopeful, since he was very little known in America.

"I do not suppose," he said, half hoping for contradiction, "that there are a hundred men in the country who possess one of my books."

"Sir," said the agent, "I assure you, you are mistaken. I know America, and I will undertake to say that there is not a small town or village that does not possess in its institute library a copy of 'The Light of Asia.'"

When the Shah of Persia was in London, a plenitude of stories were told about his unconventional manners. Thus, we are told in this book that at the splendid Lord Mayor's banquet "the Lord Mayor, giving his arm to the Princess of Wales, asked the Shah to conduct the Lady Mayoress. The proper thing to do was to present his arm to the lady. The Shah knew a better way of going about with a pretty woman. He took her hand, and thus the two walked into Guild-hall like school-boy and school-girl going a-maying." The Shah was much impressed at this dinner by the official toast-master, and in his published notes mentions him with reverence as the Deputy Mayor. Altogether the Shah impressed Lucy as dignified, despite his queer ways of looking at English customs.

Cardinal Manning's death brought out the fact that this Prince of the Church had but $500 in the world. When a large present was offered him on the occasion of his jubilee, the Cardinal said: "Much has passed through my hands in these five-and-twenty years; nothing has stayed. Under this roof all has gone into the work which has been intrusted to me. My desire is to die as a priest ought, without money and without debts."

Lord Houghton left among his correspondence the following reply to a dinner invitation: "Mrs. —— presents her compliments to Lord Houghton. Her husband died on Tuesday, otherwise he would have been delighted to dine with Lord Houghton on Thursday next." This story is capped by the telegram once received by Lord Oranmore from the relatives of a faithful old servant: "Jane died last night, and wishes to know if your lordship will pay her funeral expenses."

Mr. Balfour was one of those who could enjoy a point scored against himself. His return from Ireland brought out this story:

During his stay in Dublin he met a Catholic priest who did not belong to the National party. Taking an opportunity favorable for obtaining information on an interesting point, he asked the priest if in his opinion the Irish people were as bitter against him as they were represented to be in the newspapers favorable to Mr. Parnell.

"Since you have asked me, I will tell you the truth," said the priest. "If our flocks hated sin

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half as cordially as they hate you, there would be no use for priests in Ireland."

We have never seen elsewhere told from the personal point of view the facts regarding Disraeli's share in the purchase of the Suez Canal. The delightful play "Disraeli," which, as admirably acted by Mr. George Arliss, has had a wide hearing in America, turns on this very bit of history, and there has been a good deal of inquiry about the degree of closeness with which the play followed the facts. We are sure that many readers will like to see the narrative told to Lucy by Frederick Greenwood, the well-known writer, once editor of the "Pall Mall Gazette:"

On a certain Sunday night in the autumn of 1875, he [Greenwood] chanced to be dining with Henry Oppenheim, one of the original proprietors of the "Daily News." During a residence in Paris and Egypt that gentleman, just settling down in London, was brought into close connection with Egyptian financial affairs. On the previous day he heard of the intention of the impecunious Khedive to sell *en bloc* his holding in the capital of the Suez Canal. Greenwood instantly saw the opportunity for a great stroke of state. On leaving Bruton Street he went direct to the private residence of the Foreign Secretary (Lord Derby) and told him of the rare chance. Lord Derby informed the Prime Minister, whose Oriental mind glowed at the prospect of so stupendous a deal. Inquiry secretly made at Cairo disclosed the fact that the Khedive would "part" for a sum of four millions sterling. But it must be money down.

It was, Greenwood told me, on Lord Beaconsfield's personal suggestion that the difficulty, at the moment apparently insuperable, was overcome. The consent of Parliament was necessary to the confirmation of the deal. That involved both delay and publicity, either fatal to success. Late on the Thursday night following the Bruton Street dinner, the Premier sent his private secretary, Monty Corry, to call upon Baron Rothschild, at the time head of the great financial house. Even a Rothschild did not happen to have about him a trifle of four millions sterling. Nor was it possible, in accordance with the traditions of the house, that such a transaction should be entered upon without having been considered in family council. Corry accordingly returned to the Premier without definite reply. It came promptly on the following morning. Rothschild would advance the money on a commission of two and a half per cent.

These terms were pretty stiff, involving a payment of £100,000. The City heard of them with envy, and they were discussed with much severity when the matter came before the House of Commons. The Rothschilds and their friends defended them on the ground that the colossal transaction involved a certain measure of risk. There was absolutely no security beyond the influence of the Premier, still master of a majority in the House of Commons, and pledged to invoke it in order to obtain Parliamentary sanction. The whole thing happened between two Sundays.

Finally, we may repeat one of the Gladstone anecdotes:

At a dinner party where Lord Bramwell was present some one gave an enthusiastic account of how Mrs. Gladstone, deeply moved by one of her husband's oratorical successes, had, upon convenient opportunity, thrown her arms round his neck and kissed him twice.

"Served him right," growled Bramwell from the other end of the table.

Stella Maris. By W. J. Locke. John Lane Company, New York. $1.30.

If "Stella Maris" had been written by another hand, it might well be that it would receive a heartier welcome. But most of the lovers of Locke, when they pick up a book with his name on the cover, want Locke pure and undefiled. Mr. Locke has here turned from the field in which his admirers feel him to be among the first to a new one. He has forsaken comedy—comedy not in the comic sense but in the human sense—for drama, if not for tragedy. This is the story of a girl confined to her bed with an affection of the spine which forbids her moving in the slightest. She lives in a room on a cliff overlooking the sea. Those about her have done their utmost to keep the slightest knowledge of evil from her. She lives in a dream world where the few real figures of her friends take their places in idealized form. The crux of the story comes when an unexpected recovery allows her to go into the real world and to be where its evil side can thrust itself upon her. The story is constructed and told with the skill which its author has taught us to expect. But it isn't Locke—not the Locke of "The Beloved Vagabond," "Septimus," and "The Glory of Clementina."

Sixty-first Second (The). By O. M. Johnson. Frederick A. Stokes Company, New York. $1.35.

A chafing-dish party of a dozen persons prominent in social and financial circles, in the apartments of a woman of a charming and unusual personality. The servants dismissed. The guests doing the cooking and serving. A wonderful ruby ring belonging to the hostess and left by her on her dressing-table disappears. Some one of the party must have taken it. The hostess is in full command of the situation. She gathers the group about the bare dining-room table. She announces that the lights will be turned out, that she will count one hundred, that when the lights are turned on again she will expect the ring to be on the table. If it is not, detectives will be called in and every one searched. The lights go out; she counts. At the sixty-first second—but the author has some rights. The final solution of this interesting situation leads

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through intrigues financial and romantic. If the solution of the mystery falls a trifle flat, after all the mystery's the thing, and not the solution. At any rate, the interest never lags.

Weaker Vessel (The). By E. F. Benson. Harper & Brothers, New York. $1.35.

This is a contrast in its quietness to the liveliness of the book which first attracted attention to Mr. Benson as a novelist. "Dodo" had more sparkle, but "The Weaker Vessel" has far more fidelity to life. It is a serious and truthful study of social conditions and of individual temperament. Particularly exact in its realism is the character of the self-sufficient and narrow-minded rector's wife who makes miserable the life of her cheerful, ambitious, and gifted stepdaughter. Equally good in its depiction is the character of the man the girl marries—a genius as a writer of plays only when he is under the inspiration of alcohol, and therefore inevitably a weak though lovable character, whose life trends naturally downward. While his power weakens, his wife's strengthens; and she becomes a fine embodiment of honor and faithfulness.

Veiled Women. By Marmaduke Tickthall. Duffield & Co., New York. $1.25.

The old Orient and the new Orient, the old Turk and the new Turk, are contrasted vividly in this story. A young, friendless Englishwoman is persuaded to become a governess in the household of an Egyptian Pasha. She is easily persuaded to marry the Pasha's son, who falls desperately in love with her, and to accept Mohammedanism. It is inevitable that sorrow and trouble shall result. The story has plenty of incident, and, while its construction is weak, it is a book which will be read with interest because of its first-hand knowledge and its evidently truthful reflection of Turkish life to-day.

American Nobility. By Pierre de Coulevain. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. $1.35.

The French woman who writes under the pseudonym of Pierre de Coulevain has just published a new novel. Its plot is not particularly fresh and its style—probably suffering in the translation—not particularly brilliant. The difficulty with Pierre de Coulevain's books published since her "Sur la Branche" is that we inevitably compare them to that really remarkable volume. The plot of the present novel concerns the fortunes of a young American heiress. She goes to France, marries a nobleman, and yields to an illicit love. Rather more important, in our opinion, than are the fortunes and misfortunes of an American heiress abroad are Pierre de Coulevain's own opinions concerning American women. In her preface she says:

> Individually, women have very little influence in the United States, but collectively they are formidable. They are quite aware of this, for they hold together in the most extraordinary way and they certainly contribute largely to the progress of their country. . . . It is not among the society women that we must look for the greatest virtues and good qualities. In America there is a very large class of serious, educated women, and it is these women who form the bulwarks of America, just as the provincial and middle-class women of France form the bulwarks of that country.

Pete Crowther, Salesman. By Elmer E. Ferris. Doubleday, Page & Co., New York. $1.10.

Readers of The Outlook do not need description or praise of Mr. Ferris's "Pete." "Pete" is an optimist, a good salesman, and a good storyteller; one who likes his work, loves humanity, and knows how to tell his adventures in a way to amuse and stimulate. One is glad to get the stories together in book form; and it is safe to predict that they will become even better known than they are now. We may properly say here that they will be followed in The Outlook by others. These also will doubtless in good time be put into permanent form.

Flirt (The). By Booth Tarkington. Doubleday, Page & Co., New York. $1.25.

Mr. Tarkington's fame will not be increased by this story. His "flirt" is not only that, but a liar and a selfish, hateful creature to boot. There is a good bad boy in the book and the liar's sister is wholesome, but the plot is yellow and unconvincing.

Finerty of the Sand-House. By Charles D. Stewart. The Century Company, New York. 75c.

Readers of "The Fugitive Blacksmith" remember Finerty well. The things that happen to him in this little book are droll in themselves and are told by him with Irish wit and American humor.

English Literature, 1880-1905. By J. M. Kennedy. Small, Maynard & Co., Boston. $2.50.

A book on literature which opens with an attempt to define the exact difference between classic and romantic is to be looked at with active suspicion. Like the defender in a French trial, it should be considered guilty until it proves itself innocent—or rather intelligent. Mr. Kennedy's definition is alternately platitudinous and opaque. With such an introduction the reader is naturally prejudiced against what is to follow. It cannot be said that the volume as a whole is able to dispel the impression received from the opening chapter.

Dante and the Mystics. By Edmund Garratt Gardner. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. $3.50.

This interesting volume by a Cambridge scholar contains portions of his lectures at University College, London. It is a study of Dante's mysticism in his great poem, and in its affiliation with representative mystics from St. Augustine to the poet's own time. Noting the distinction between two types of mysticism—a subjective experience, and an objective doctrine from the standpoint of theology, psychology, and poetry—the author finds the whole of the "Divina Commedia" leading up to the supreme utterance of that experience in the final canto of the "Paradiso." This, however, the poet emphasizes less than its direct bearing on life

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and conduct. His aim is rather "to make spiritual experience a force for the reformation of mankind." In following a line of study so divergent from the beaten path Mr. Gardner has made a valuable addition to the library of Dantean literature.

Old Homes of New Americans. By Francis E. Clark. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston. $1.50.

Dr. Clark is known to every one as the founder and "Father" of the Christian Endeavor Movement. He has spent a good deal of time abroad in studying and observing the conditions of the peoples of the countries in the eastern part of Europe. It need not be pointed out that this part of the world is now in the full light of public attention. The reader is told here about the city and country life and industrial status of various parts of Austria and Hungary—such as Poland, Ruthenia, Croatia, and Slavonia. The intention throughout is to show the state of civilization of the men and women who are crowding upon us by scores of thousands from just these lands. In a single year, for instance (1910), over two hundred and sixty thousand people came to America from Austria-Hungary, and among these were no fewer than twenty-seven thousand Croatians and Slavonians, and about the same number of Ruthenians.

Success in Business. By William G. Rose. Duffield & Co., New York. $1.25.

These short talks are written concisely and in epigrammatic style, with frequent quotation, and with the occasional telling of anecdotes which bear pointedly on the subject. Business knowledge, power-getting, the mental attitude towards work, loyalty, and a score of other similar topics are treated forcibly.

New International Year Book, 1911 (The). Frank Moore Colby, M.A., Editor. Allen Leon Churchill, Associate Editor. Dodd, Mead & Co., New York. $5.

The latest issue of the "New International Year Book" is, as its predecessors have been, a worthy compendium of the world's progress. Like those predecessors, this Year Book differs from other annual volumes published in English in being particularly encyclopædic in its range. It comprises in one volume a surprisingly large amount of information, otherwise to be obtained only by consultin g many books, some statistical, some historical, some political. Another notable feature of the work is the habit of the editors not to carry the text forward from one year to another, but to write it anew. The publication is increasingly valuable.

Dawn in Darkest Africa. By John H. Harris. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. $3.50.

In the Shadow of the Bush. By P. Amaury Talbot. George H. Doran Company, New York. $5.

The African west coast is of increasing interest. First of all, the revelations regarding misrule in the Congo have scandalized the world and have drawn its interest to a noteworthy region whether we regard its natural resources or the needs of its natives. Lord Cromer's introduction to Mr. Harris's text sets forth in measured but impressive language the actual conditions that confront the Belgians. The Nigerian region has not been so much in the public eye as has the Congo, but the aborigines there are no less interesting than are those over whom Belgium has sway. Mr. Talbot's volume is, so far as we know, the only adequate description of certain of the Nigerian tribes. For the general reader both books would have gained by condensation.

Rahel Varnhagen. By Ellen Key. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. $1.50.

Despite her English name, Ellen Key is a well-known Swedish writer on all topics connected with the advancement of woman. Her latest book is a study of Rahel Varnhagen, who has been called the Madame de Staël of Germany—perhaps not an inappropriate distinction, for her salon was frequented by such literary giants as Humboldt, Schleiermacher, and Ranke. But the lady's significance was greater than that of a gifted social leader. She was a true "feminist," and anticipated many of the ideas for which progressive women's groups are contending to-day. Hence the timeliness of the present volume.

Story of the Renaissance (The). By William Henry Hudson. Cassell & Co., New York. $1.50.

Mr. Hudson's "Story of the Renaissance" is just the kind of book to be put in the hands of one who has not the time to read a longer and more detailed work—like the now classic work of John Addington Symonds, for instance.

Engravings of William Blake (The). By Archibald G. B. Russell. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston. $7.50.

Of all English artists William Blake seemed the most eccentric. Mr. Russell's volume will be an aid in understanding just why he was so eccentric, but it should be supplemented by the livelier estimate written by Mr. Chesterton. The particular value of the present volume, however, lies, as may be expected, in the direction of a better understanding of Blake's engravings, and it should be, therefore, of particular interest to all engravers.

Poems of Christina Rossetti. Edited by Charles Bell Burke, Ph.D. The Macmillan Company, New York. 25 cents.

This is a students' Rossetti, printed and edited in the manner typical of all school editions. Narrow margins, minute and frequently inconsequential annotations, biographical comment of average excellence, copious selection from standard "appreciations," a preface which closes with the modest but familiar hope that "Should the Selected Poems of . . . Rossetti contribute ever so faintly to the juster appreciation of her noble spirit and her beautiful art, the exertions of all concerned will be amply rewarded"—the book has all the ear-marks of its breed. Of its kind it is a very creditable example.

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THE READER'S VIEW

TOBIAS LEAR

I notice an error made in one of your editorial articles in which it was stated that George Washington chose his secretary, Tobias Lear, from the State of Virginia. Tobias Lear was born in Portsmouth, New Hampshire, September 19, 1762, in an old house now on Hunking Street. His father and grandfather were also born in Portsmouth. He was graduated from Harvard College in 1783, and was Washington's secretary from that time until 1799, when he was appointed Consul to Algiers. He died in 1816. He married into the Washington family after his graduation from college, so his associations were naturally with the South, which may have been the cause of the error.

CHARLES S. PENHALLOW.

Boston, Massachusetts.

THE WEBB LAW

As a reader of The Outlook I was much interested in the vigorous protest from a Louisville, Kentucky, gentleman against the passage of the Webb Bill enabling "dry" States to protect themselves from liquor-sellers in "wet" States. If the courts will assuredly declare it unconstitutional, why such eagerness of protest? An anti-saloon superintendent from the East was sharing his seat into Omaha the week after its first passage, and while in the hands of the President, with one who revealed himself as a liquor drummer. He unsuspectingly told my friend that in two days the liquor forces had just raised two hundred thousand dollars in Louisville to defeat the measure. Why all this waste if it is so manifestly unconstitutional? That subscription doth protest too much. And where did all that money go to? For whom was it intended? It looks very bad.

"Congress shall have power to regulate commerce (a) with foreign nations, and (b) among the several States, and (c) with the Indian tribes."

Acting under this conferred power to regulate commerce among the several States, which is a power absolutely unlimited and requiring no uniformity, Congress has seen fit to prescribe the following regulation, to wit: That in the transportation of all alcoholic liquor designed for sale, the same shall fall under the operation of the State law upon its arrival within the State.

The right of any State to make and enforce its own sanitary or police regulations is granted on the part of all. Before me is a seed house catalogue from Nebraska. Of scores of roots and plants it says: "The laws are such that we cannot ship nursery stock into Wyoming." Wyoming utterly refuses to let what may be diseased stock come within its bounds, and Congress makes no effort to enable Nebraska's citizens to force it upon the citizens of the neighboring State. Touching the far more vital liquor question, Congress, in the unlimited right and power to regulate commerce, enunciates this regulation, that any State may treat liquor coming into its bounds exactly as it would liquor originating within its bounds. Within this provision of the Constitution Congress may make any conceivable regulation as to commerce among the several States, be its effect one thing in one State and another in another State.

Liquor is fast being outlawed. It got a heavy blow when on January 1 Uncle Sam declined to admit it into the parcel post, and now it gets another when Uncle Sam refuses longer to protect its entrance into a State when it has been outlawed therein.

WILBUR F. STEELE.

University Park, Colorado.

"THE WASTE OF RETAILING"

I read with considerable interest the article published in your February 1 issue, entitled "The Waste of Retailing." Every retail merchant of high character—and there are such—would welcome co-operation in the remedying of abuses, and worse, that are not only expensive to the community from the standpoint of the loosely discussed "high cost of living" and also are drains upon the merchants' prosperity, but, further, a positive menace to the social and moral welfare of the State.

The writer, in the article referred to, makes the following rather parenthetical admission: "Now, laying aside all social questions involved, it would seem as if all this subdivision of work, swiftness of service, utilization of waste materials, and low cost of labor would materially reduce the cost of living—and indeed it does lower prices to some extent." The point is this: The writer scarcely refers at all to the real wastes of retailing, but confuses such wastes with the atrocious wastes of dishonesty, immorality, and even criminality, as observed in the mercantile world. After citing some of the more flagrant cases, she adds: "'Surely,' the reader will say, 'such discreditable conditions are the exception to the rule.' Even so, but they are all too common."

Alas, they are too common! Every one of wide experience and the right perspectives of life will deplore the fact, but none of wide experience and right perspectives would for a moment compare the social and moral conditions at the bottom of the ladder with those at the top.

I venture the assertion that the trade (including the retailers, the jobbers, many manufacturers, and the trade press) would gladly welcome such a study if into it were injected the co-operative spirit of seeking the greatest good for the greatest number.

During the past few years the one factor of

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retailing has had a searching scrutiny that will no doubt in the end react to the great advantage of all concerned, both the men in business and the buying public; but in this process of evolution and revolution much injustice is done. I think that the retailers who read The Outlook will feel that an injustice has been done in the present instance, though many will not analyze the situation sufficiently to realize that the injustice is more in the caption than in the matter.

Many suppose that higher standards are to be imposed from without; and, in fact, influences from without are necessary. But within the ranks of the retail world are great forces at work.

Here is an observation that is just as true as any that can be quoted: "How changed stores are becoming! How ideals are displacing tricks! How a vocation almost as despised as the selling of doves in the temple of old has arisen to the dignity and fine estate of a profession!" Another recent writer has said: "Times are changed, and the conduct of the enlightened twentieth century store can well share its ethics with any profession, and need blush in no company."

All of our stores have not yet been so transfigured. Many, as your writer points out, "among the small stores and markets confirmed the impression that their methods are largely those of the seventeenth century," though her original generalization was rather too broad.

"SOUTHWESTERN MERCHANT,"
Dallas, Texas. H. C. LENINGTON, Editor.

JOAQUIN MILLER

Will you kindly permit a correction of your report of Joaquin Miller, published in your issue of March 1 (page 466)? You state: "It is said that . . . he acquired the nickname 'Joaquin' because of his energetic defense in a law court of a Mexican bandit who was named Joaquin Murietta." This is incorrect. Mr. Miller (whose baptismal name was Cincinnatus Heiner, not Heine) was christened Joaquin by the pioneer California poet Ina Coolbrith, his lifelong friend—the only one who now remains of the famous "Overland" group made up of Bret Harte, Charles Warren Stoddard, Mark Twain, and Joaquin Miller—she whom Stedman called "the Sappho of the West," and who was the beloved sister of those giants of the days of old on this "Corniche d'Or" of ours. I beg to quote from "The Monitor" the story of Miller's rechristening, written by me as I received it from Ina Coolbrith herself, and as often attested by Miller and his family:

In 1870, when he first came down to California from Oregon, and had published his first little book of poems, entitled "Joaquin et al.," he told Miss Coolbrith of his determination to go to London and win fame, or quit. "How in the world," she asked him, "do you ever expect to climb Parnassus with such a name as you have? Miller is bad enough, but Cincinnatus Heiner is impossible."

"But what can I do?" Miller protested. "It's my name, isn't it?"

"Yes; but why don't you take some name that will identify you with California?" Miss Coolbrith rejoined. "Take the name of your first book; call yourself Joaquin."

"By George! I'll do it," said Miller. And from that day he signed himself Joaquin Miller.

CHARLES PHILLIPS, Editor "Monitor."
San Francisco, California.

FAVORITE HYMNS

Each member of a class in Bible and hymn reading in the theological department at Vanderbilt University was requested recently to hand in a list of ten favorite hymns, arranged as nearly as possible in the order of the student's preference. There were twenty-six students in the class, all candidates for the ministry, representing practically every Southern and Southwestern State. It is reasonable to suppose that each young man was largely influenced in his choice by the hymns with which he was familiar at home, in church, and at Sunday-school. Besides these, no doubt, each would have one or two hymns of more recent acquaintance which had grown into favor because of what seemed to him superior merit. It was realized, of course, that the influence of a tune on a hymn is often very marked, and might easily account for the preference for a certain hymn which would otherwise be little regarded. The tabulated result of the inquiry is of interest, not only because the students composing the class possess more than the average knowledge of hymns in general, and have some critical judgment of religious poetry, but because it gives a fair idea of the most popular hymns in the Southern section of the country:

	Mentioned.	First Choice.
Abide with me	21	1
Jesus, Lover of my soul	20	7
There's a wideness in God's mercy	19	1
Rock of Ages	16	0
My faith looks up to Thee	13	4
Lead, kindly Light	13	1
Just as I am	12	1
Nearer, my God, to Thee	10	4
From Greenland's icy mountains	9	1
I bow my forehead in the dust	9	0
Faith of our fathers	8	2
O Love divine that stoops to share	8	0
How firm a foundation	7	1
Joy to the world	6	1
Holy, holy, holy	4	0
Sweet hour of prayer	4	0
What a friend we have in Jesus	3	0
True-hearted, whole-hearted	3	0
Thou art my everlasting portion	3	0
There is a fountain filled with blood	3	0
Come, thou fount of every blessing	3	0
The Son of God goes forth to war	3	0
Blest be the tie that binds	3	0
All hail the power of Jesus' name	3	0
Saviour, more than life to me	2	0
Blessed assurance, Jesus is mine	2	0
Onward, Christian soldiers	22	0
Jesus, I my cross have taken	2	0
Still, still with Thee	2	0
O for a thousand tongues to sing	2	0

(Hymns receiving less than two votes are omitted.)

It will be seen that the splendid hymn "Abide with me" was mentioned by twenty-one, but

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only one gave it first place. Though several of the new hymns included in the last revision of the Methodist Hymn Book were included in the lists, not one received a vote for first place. The first choice was in each case one of the standard hymns.

It is interesting to note that Whittier's hymn "I bow my forehead in the dust" received a place in nine lists. Oliver Wendell Holmes's hymn "O Love divine that stooped to share" was mentioned in eight lists. It is certain that these hymns were not familiar as church, Sunday-school, or fireside hymns to the students who included them in their lists; in all probability they had become acquainted 'with them recently, and had given them a place in their hearts.

A. M. HARRIS.

Nashville, Tennessee.

THE TRENTON IDEA

What is "the Trenton idea"? It simply means that in this twentieth century of commercial supremacy and agricultural efficiency the farmer and the business man must unite and co-operate in the fullest sense of the term.

The operation of the idea in our community was successful from the start. In February, 1912, the Commercial Club of the city of Trenton, Missouri, decided that the results obtained in the past were not entirely satisfactory. After a general discussion and an exchange of ideas between the individuals composing the organization, "the Trenton idea" was evolved.

"The Trenton idea" obliterates the established legal, but imaginary, line between the town and the country. It extends the zone of activity from the central point of the real town to the circumference of the community at large. It ignores the tendency to confine trade and commercial activities within the limits of the town or city, and works to the end that the interests of all are the interests of each. It includes both business and social activities of life, and gives vent and direction to the urban and suburban energies of the town and the farm.

With this range of thought clearly before them, the members of the Trenton Commercial Club agreed to inaugurate a new campaign for membership. The new Commercial Club was to contain not only the citizens of the town of Trenton, but also the farmers who resided within the circumference of the sphere of common welfare; within those bounds "the Trenton idea" was to operate. This campaign for membership was unique and decidedly successful. With a previous membership of only 150 members, all of whom were residents of the city of Trenton, the organization grew to nearly 500 citizens of the greater city of Trenton. The total membership was about half farmers, scattered in every direction within radii of twenty miles of the center of the idea. Thus could it truly be said that, according to "the Trenton idea," Trenton has a population of 20,000 instead of 7,000. The organization, fully representing the territory in which it thrives, became a chamber of agriculture and commerce.

In terms of the definition, a Trentonite is a man who lives within this zone of common interest; whether he walks six blocks or drives six miles he is a citizen of Trenton and an exponent of "the Trenton idea" in actual life. In other words, the interests of all the citizens are identical. What is good for the citizen six blocks from the Court-House is good for the citizen six miles from that point. The workman in the factory, in the old corporate limits, has equal concern with the poultry-yard enthusiast on the farm who is making Grand River Valley famous in the production and distribution of the Missouri hen.

Far more significant, even deeper than the commercial and financial features involved in this proposition, lies the better part of "the Trenton idea," to be found in its practical application to the social side of life. Remarkable results have already been accomplished in that particular during the last twelve months. The old suspicion which the farmer unconsciously entertained toward his fellow-citizen in the city, and the similar feeling which the townsman entertained toward his friend in the country, are rapidly dying out.

"The Trenton idea" ignores all factions. It aims to unite socially and cement together in pleasant social bonds every unit of the community by welding together in one family the entire citizenry of the greater city. The theory that you can do business with one another in a more satisfactory way where there is a pleasant social side of life affects the better side of man's nature, and makes every citizen realize in his heart the truth of the old saying, "One touch of nature makes the whole world kin."

The Trenton Commercial Club is different from the old-fashioned aggregation. It has received into its young veins the healthy blood of the farm, and smacks f the soil, the rich black soil of Missouri. It deals in men, products, and distribution.

"The Trenton idea" is as contagious as laughter. The glad time is coming when every progressive community will beam with the smile of prosperity caught from "the Trenton idea." Here is plowed up for the first time a rich new field of consolidation and co-operation. Here behold the rushing together at last of the two great streams of life, commerce and agriculture, the two most permanent factors in civilization.

In a nutshell, therefore, "the Trenton idea" means that in Grundy County, Missouri, at least, agriculture and commerce are married. The slogan is, "The Trenton idea is not lazy, it works."

(Rev.) HENRY B. TIERNEY.

Trenton, Missouri.

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MANY INVENTIONS

THE "MOVIES" AND THE EYES

THE "movies" have called forth much discussion on several points in the recent past; how far censorship ought to prevail, and whether or not the permission to amusement houses to show "movies" on Sunday was in conformance with social welfare. But one of the most interesting discussions of the "movies" and their ramifications has to do with the eyesight. Considered from the standpoint of the oculist, the "movies" are intensely interesting as being the chief cause of what is known among eye specialists as "moving picture eye," an already well-developed optical phenomenon. Hundreds of people who did not know their sight was faulty have found it out through their experience with the "movies." Dr. Charles A. Bahn, an oculist of New Orleans, states in the New Orleans "Medical and Surgical Journal" that one of the chief causes of "moving picture eye" is the habit persons have of staring unblinkingly at whatever intensely interests them. This habit, it is advised, can be overcome by forcing one's self not to look either too continually or with too great concentration at any one point. Dr. Bahn also advises a rear seat as the least hurtful point of view. The normal eye is less equal to the strain of the "movies" than is the short-sighted or far-sighted eye, through its inability to oscillate rapidly. For instance, to see things near by the eyes of a man with normal sight must undergo a forced elongation. This, if continued for any length of time, is a severe strain on the eye muscles. With the short-sighted or myopic man this elongation is already accomplished; consequently his eyes are spared the extra exertion. The consensus of opinion of oculists is that a man with normal eyesight can safely endure four sittings of thirty minutes each per week with but little or no unpleasant symptoms and no permanent ill effects. But the "movie" fan lays himself open to overtaxed eye nerves, with the consequent headaches, indigestion, and general nervous complaints.

MOVIES AT HOME

From time to time one hears of attempts to adapt the moving picture invention to home use, but the difficulties as regards cost, insurance, safety, and other elements are great. It has already been shown, however, in this country that moving pictures can be used to fine educational advantage even in an ordinary small school-room, and there is every prospect of advance in this direction. In Great Britain two inventions, the pathescope and the Bettini machine, are offered for home use. "Chambers's Journal" thus describes them:

The pathescope is a small machine, occupying no more space than a phonograph, which can be set up on a table, and, as with the magic lantern, the size of the picture may be varied within certain limits by the distance between the projector and the screen. Hitherto the great objection against this development has been the combustible nature of the celluloid film; but this drawback has been completely overcome by the use of a non-inflammable film made from acetate of cellulose. Though the picture thrown from this base is not so clear and fine as that obtainable with the celluloid, with the home machine and the small picture the defect is not so pronounced as in the case of a large picture in a hall. In order to insure that only a non-inflammable film shall be used, the edges of the film have a varied perforation; that is to say, there are more holes on one edge than on the other. Accordingly the inflammable film with the standard perforation gauge cannot be used. This is a very interesting development, but it suffers from the great disadvantage that the films are costly. To meet this objection, the idea of a library has been evolved, the films being exchanged from time to time, as is done with books. The establishment of depots in the large centers will facilitate the exchange of films; but as users in country districts can effect an exchange only by post, it is doubtful if the project will survive the first wave of enthusiasm. Mr. Edison has perfected a similar small machine for the home; but as the films must also be purchased, the expense, coupled with the fact that the novelty soon wears off, is an adverse factor. The true solution of the kinematograph-at-home idea would seem to rest in the Bettini invention, as the cost is trifling. The inventor of this system has discovered a means of using a non-inflammable film base, in preference to glass, so that the disadvantage of breakability is absent. The pathescope, however, is the first commercial application of the idea upon rational lines, and undoubtedly there are many homes in which animated pictures will appear as a diversion.

ILL-DIRECTED INVENTION

The Patent Office of the United States, in addition to its immensely valuable record of useful inventions, is also a museum of curiosities of misdirected ingenuity. Mr. Gilson Gardner has delved into the oddities and absurdities of inventors, and in an article printed in the "Technical World Magazine" presents some of them with accompanying diagrams.

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So absurd are some of these proposed inventions that if it were not for direct evidence of their genuineness one would almost suspect a hoax. Among them are such things as these: a locket, elaborate specifications of which are given, which is intended to afford a place for chewing-gum when its happy possessor is not actually chewing it; a boot-jack which is also an ornamental doubled-barreled pistol intended for use in celebrating the Fourth of July; a combination of a pair of suspenders and a fire escape—by the way, among the records of the Patent Office is one showing that Mark Twain was the grantee of a suspender patent; a picture is given, but it seems to differ from the ordinary suspender only by being absolutely simple. A very brilliant idea, formed by Mr. Jerome Oraly, to whom patent letters were issued on March 19, 1912, is for an elevated road to be supported by trees; as the diagram shows, all that is necessary is to plant trees on each side of the road, then to bend their tops over toward the center so as to make them grow together, then to suspend the elevated road from the tops of the growing trees; there is every evidence that the inventor took this scheme perfectly seriously. Another invention, to which a special prize should certainly be awarded, is that of a man who proposes to use, in wild regions, the domestic cat for the purpose of entrapping wild animals, with the guarantee that a perfectly good cat will be left for future use. One really needs the diagram to understand this, but the general principle is thus explained by Mr. Gardner:

An ingenious contrivance has been patented by an Oregon man of Echo, Oregon, by means of which the family cat can be used as live bait for catching lynxes, cougars, panthers, and the like, without danger to the cat and with great certainty that the wild animals will be trapped. The patent consists of a sharp stake with a point at the top, intended to make it uncomfortable for pussy to rest there permanently; and a ring over the stake to which, by a light chain, is attached a collar or harness, which fastens around the cat's neck. In a circle about the stake are set a half-dozen steel traps, securely chained to the ground in such way that an animal caught in one of them could not quite reach the stake. Drive the stake somewhere out in the wilds where lynxes and panthers do congregate, put pussy into the collar, and await results. Being a live bait, she will yowl. This will attract the animals, but when they come she will immediately escape by running up the stake, which is covered with cloth to give her claws a chance. The animal, while prancing around at the foot of the stake, will prance into one of the steel traps and get caught. Pussy will come down from the pointed top and serve as bait to attract more animals.

THE WRIGHT AEROPLANE PATENTS SUSTAINED

The Wright Company is that founded and owned by the famous Wright brothers, Orville and Wilbur. Their patent contentions have been upheld in France and Germany, and now in this country by a United States District Court. Probably an appeal may be taken to the higher court, but the lower court is very clear and positive. Those interested in the technical points will find the decision summarized fully in the "Scientific American" for March 22. The main contention is there thus stated: "On February 27, 1913, Judge Hazel, in the District Court of the United States for the Western District of New York, handed down a decision upholding the Wright patent in the case of the Wright Company v. Herring-Curtiss Company and Glenn H. Curtiss. All the elements in the Wright machine were conceded to be old. The question at issue was: Were the Wrights the first to discover that the vertical rudder of a flying-machine must be used in conjunction with wing-warping devices or ailerons in order to prevent the machine from spinning on a vertical axis? The Court held that they were, and that Curtiss had infringed the patent in which that discovery is described and claimed."

A SLEIGH FOR THE DESERT

A corporal in the French army in North Africa, so the "Scientific American" tells us, has devised a peculiar machine particularly adapted for travel over the sand wastes of the Sahara. "The machine is a cross between an automobile and an aeroplane, and has been dubbed the 'sleigh of the desert.' The construction is very light indeed. It is mounted on broad-tired pneumatic wheels, but is driven by an aeroplane propeller. It is so light and its bearing surface is so great that it will ride over the sands without sinking, leaping over light depressions, and climbing the steepest sand dunes. There is a decided advantage in using an air propeller, for then the drive of the machine is independent of its traction. In the loose sand of the desert it would be rather difficult to propel a machine after the manner of an automobile."

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BY THE WAY

Some of the vast private parks of England, which form so delightful a feature of the landscape to the traveler but which are an economic disadvantage to the overcrowded island, are likely to be restored to agricultural use. Blenheim Park, one of the most magnificent of these parks, is, it is announced, in part at least, soon to be put under the plow.

The Lehigh Valley Railroad has fitted up a "mine rescue car" for emergency work in the coal fields. It contains, besides ordinary surgical appliances, twelve Draeger oxygen helmets for rescue work in mines filled with gas; pulmotors for restoring prostrated miners; saws, axes, and picks; and stretchers for carrying injured men to the car.

Sir E. J. Poynter says of Whistler, with whom he was associated in early life in Paris, that "Whistler rarely finished any work, but he loved to pretend, just for fun, that his unfinished studies were perfect works of genius. Then he would chuckle when people took him at his word." Whistler's joking propensities all through his life make the statement seem plausible. Menpes tells of his purchasing china at a cheap shop and then cajoling aristocratic visitors into admiring it as the rarest porcelain.

Barbers please take notice! A new electrical device directs a current either of cold or hot air upon a given point. It is made of aluminum and weighs only two pounds, and may conveniently be used for drying hair, for cosmetic treatment, or for any purpose in which quick drying is requisite.

A great-great-grandnephew of the victor of Waterloo is said to be an actor on the English stage and to appear under the name of "Arthur Wellesley." A sentiment which might have reconciled the Iron Duke to the use of his name is attributed to this actor: "I hate the conventional life and society people. I believe in equality and work." The young man is a Viscount, but prefers to be known simply by his stage name.

Buenos Aires is to outdo the Eiffel Tower of Paris by erecting a structure 1,067 feet high, topped by a 106-foot statue bearing a million candle-power searchlight. The Argentine tower will thus be 1,173 feet high, exceeding the Eiffel Tower's height by 189 feet.

The Edison Company of New York City recently opened a fine club house for the use of its 3,000 employees. Bowling alleys, shuffleboards, billiard and pool rooms, a music room, a dance hall, and a library are features. The building is to be used by both men and women employees.

Lord Curzon, ex-Viceroy of India, recently advised women to discard birds' feathers as ornaments for their hats. "What do the admirers of fair women care about women's headgear?" he is reported as saying. "What do the men care whether the women adorn their heads with feathers or bristles, as long as they look fetching? The traffic in birds' feathers is an appalling one, and men who sell and women who wear them should be sent to prison."

Are Americans more careless about the rules of the road, and such like matters, than Europeans? A railway man thinks they are. He says, in a letter to an exchange: "There is little difference in the habit of mind which sends the careless teamster past the traffic officer's raised arm at a crowded crossing, and that which sends a locomotive engineer past a stop signal. Both are more frequent in this country than in Europe."

The hotels of Europe come in for commendation from the same observer, who points his moral with this incident: "The European hotel manager who, at our departure, came to our cab door, bowing his thanks for our patronage, and presenting Mrs. B. with a bouquet of roses, left with us a sense of pleasure and a desire to return which I have never experienced on leaving any hotel in this country."

The late Joaquin Miller, says a writer in the "Christian Register," was indifferent to books, but was fond of newspapers. "He scanned the newspapers with avidity and made copious clippings. He preferred communing with nature to books. The only volume in his den was a Bible."

One of the mysteries of the seas, says "Shipping Illustrated," has been solved by the finding of a bottle message describing the loss of the British steamer Nutfield, which disappeared eight years ago on a voyage from Mobile to Havre. The loss of the vessel is ascribed to the carrying of a deck load of timber. This dangerous practice, which makes a ship unstable in bad weather, should be prohibited by international agreement, says the journal quoted.

George Saintsbury, in his recently published "History of English Prose Rhythm," declares that "one of the highest points of English prose is probably reached in the Authorized Version of the sixtieth chapter of Isaiah," beginning, "Arise, shine." No other translation in any language, he says, can vie with English in the splendor of this passage as it appears in the 1611 version. "So long as a single copy of the version of 1611 survives," he avers, "so long will there be accessible the best words of the best time of English."

"The greatest Australian woman" is, or was, Miss Catherine Helen Spence, according to the editor of the Adelaide "Register." She was an eloquent speaker, a versatile writer, an efficient organizer, and she devoted her long life to public work on educational, philanthropic, and social reform lines. An incurable optimist as well as a tireless worker, she wrote on her eightieth birthday: "I enjoy life as much as I did at eighteen—indeed, in many respects I enjoy it more."

The Diaries of Macready, the English actor, have been criticised as examples of inordinate egotism; but in one entry at least there is a suggestion of self-depreciation. Describing a meeting with Henry Clay, he says: "He remembered meeting me [seventeen years before]. His manners, though most kind, urbane, and cheerful, have no longer the vivacity and great animal spirits that before accompanied them. In him and Webster, two great minds, I see the pressure of the heavy hand of time; to descend to myself, I feel it."

American readers are calling for less fiction, apparently, now than they were a score of years ago. In 1890 24.5 per cent of the books published in the United States were classed as fiction; in 1912, only 9 3-10 per cent. In 1912 the actual number of books of fiction published was smaller than the number published in 1886, twenty-seven years ago.

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